The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Republican Senators at Washington have fallen into the seigniorage pit which they had digged for other feet. They have suffered that deepest of all disgraces—to trifle with the financial good faith of the country for the basest partisan ends, and then to be held up in full view of all the people in the guise of biters bit. Putting your opponents in "a hole" is never justifiable, even according to the standards of unscrupulous politicians, unless you do the job thoroughly; and when you find yourself unexpectedly at the bottom of the hole, with jeering spectators watching you flounder about in the mire, it makes you believe that there is such a thing as being too clever by half. The exhibition which the Republicans have made of themselves in hurrying on a bill to make fiat money, is only the culmination of the attitude which they have consistently maintained all through the regular session of Congress. In the extra session they sunk partisanship and voted, despite the *Tribune's* protests, for the good of the country and sound finance. But that effort seems to have exhausted their virtue, and all their energies have since been directed towards making legislation as bad as possible.

Up to date the Wilson bill has made fully as good legislative progress as that of the McKinley bill in the Fifty-first Congress. The latter was reported to the House on April 16, and passed on May 21, thus consuming ten days more time in this first stage than was necessary for the Wilson bill. This must seem incredible to those Republicans who have been losing their breath in sneering at the hopeless incompetence of a Democratic House, and sighing for the good old days of Reed's Congress, with its "business" rules and short, sharp, and decisive methods; but it is the painful truth. Even more snail-like was the progress of the McKinley bill through the Senate. It was reported on June 18, but dragged its slow length along till September 11, when it was sent to conference, where all tariff bills are really made. Out of conference it emerged for final passage on September 30. More than five months were thus required to carry the bill from first reporting to last engrossment. According to this, the Wilson bill has yet a margin of three months in which to equal the record of the McKinley bill. There is no good reason why it should not become a law in one-third of that time; in fact, every good reason, whether patriotic or partisan, calls for its passage at the earliest moment possible, and the demand of business interests for speedy action is far more pressing now than in 1890. It may be as well, however, for short-memoried Republican editors to make a note of the facts we have cited, lest they become altogether too virtuous in contemplating the superior legislative efficiency of their own party.

Some extraordinary views as to the status of the reciprocity treaties under the Wilson bill have been given out in Washington. Senators Voorhees and Vest are quoted as believing that the treaties will stand, and that the only effect of the repeal of the reciprocity clause of the McKinley bill will be to take from the President power to make new treaties or levy retaliatory duties on his own motion. Such a view might possibly be taken if the bare terms of section 88 of the Wilson bill, specifically repealing the reciprocity clause of the McKinley bill, were alone considered; but when the operation of the bill as a whole is looked at, and especially when the duties on sugar proposed by the Senate finance committee are taken into the account, it becomes a palpable absurdity. It is true that under the Wilson bill, as it passed the House, sugar and coffee and hides remained free, but the McKinley falsehood was not repeated that they were made free in order to force other countries to grant us reciprocal trade concessions. Moreover, the power of the President to swing the reciprocity club is distinctly taken away from him, so that the practical result would be that other countries could at once cancel the concessions made to us, and we should not be able to say them nay or retaliate in any way whatever.

With the duty put back on sugar, however, as it seems likely to be, the very keystone of the reciprocity treaties would be knocked out of them and they would fall of their own weight. They all set forth that, whereas we give free entry to sugar, molasses, etc., therefore the other countries, Brazil, Cuba, and so on, will shade off the duties on our exports to them. To go to taxing sugar again, of itself destroys the bargain. It will not be necessary to give notice of an intention to abrogate the treaties. If that is what the solemn Senators meant, it is no doubt true. We may keep on innocently claiming reduced duties in Cuba and Porto Rico, and profess great surprise at their objection to being taxed on their $65,000,000 of exports of sugar and molasses to us, and say that we should like them to maintain their end of the agreement although we drop ours. The collectors of customs would be bound to tax all sugar imported, treaties or no treaties. It is safe to say the result would speedily be no treaties.

The striking Trenton potters have put forth a reply to the statements recently made by the employers in regard to wages. It consists mainly of a denial, with specifications, that wages could actually be earned to the amount asserted by the manufacturers. Which party to the controversy is right on this point we cannot profess to say, but we do say that the strikers are proceeding strictly in accordance with the latest theory of protection when they affirm:

> "The bosses make a complete somersault, and jump right out of the potting business, and say our wages would compare favorably with the earnings of men in other trades. Gentlemen, we are potters, and we propose to mind our own business. The Government gives to the potting industry a high protective tariff, and we claim a right to a full share of that protection."

That is precisely in conformity with the true doctrine of protection and wages as laid down by Thomas B. Reed in his debate with Mr. Cockran. The tariff is to give extra profits to manufacturers. It would give higher wages directly to workingmen if it could; but as it cannot, it deposits with the manufacturers a sum for the workingman's benefit, which the latter can get hold of in just one way, and that is by getting up a strong labor union and going on strike. The old theory was that the manufacturer would, out of pure patriotism and benevolence, turn over his extra profits to the laboring man; but a wider experience has convinced Mr. Reed, and apparently the Trenton operatives, that the manufacturer will not give up a cent of his tariff subsidy unless driven to it by strikes and boycotts.

Both houses of the Virginia Legislature have passed a ballot-reform law, and as the Governor's approval is said to be assured, elections in that State will in future be conducted under the new system. The law provides for a blanket ballot with the names of candidates arranged in alphabetical order under each office, as in the laws of Massachusetts and thirteen other States. The addition of Virginia raises the number of States with ballot-reform laws to thirty-seven, and leaves Idaho, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Texas as the only States yet to enact them.

President Walker has taken up his bimetallist crusade in good earnest. His pamphlet on the subject is issued as a "Tract for the Times," but the ques-

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tion is, What times? When some one told Horace Bushnell that a certain preacher was behind the age, he exclaimed: "Behind the age? He is behind all ages!" Mr. Walker practically admits that, as far as the United States are concerned, bimetallism can now be discussed only *in vacuo*, but thinks he sees a bright future for it in certain things which he believes England is soon going to be forced to do. In other words, the only hope left bimetallism is that of seeing "England on her knees," on the principle that Satan (monometallism) trembles when he sees the weakest saint upon his knees. England was to have fallen a-kneeling immediately after the repeal of the silver-purchase law, according to President Andrews, and various forms of financial devastation were going to sweep down upon her. But so far all the convulsions and all the kneeling have been confined to the theoretic bimetallists in this country. When we look at President Walker's list of backers, we can only say with Hosea Biglow:

"Massachusetts, God forgive her,
She's a-kneelin' with the rest."

The Rev. Prof. G. D. Herron has written an article on the "Christian Theory of the Distribution of Wealth," which has been much admired and copied in the religious press. It is principally notable for extending to wealth in general the famous denunciations applied by Ingalls to gold. Like Ingalls's gold, Prof. Herron's wealth "has scarcely ever failed to prove its cowardice and greed and witness to the falseness of its theory by fleeing from every just demand," and also has a deplorable "habit of hiding itself in vaults and refusing to work and sacrifice in the face of a crisis." What Prof. Herron wants is a kind of capital that will "go where it is needed" and "supply the demand for work and wages." But why this should be called the Christian theory we do not see. The Populists and the socialists already claim it as their own, and will not easily suffer an infringement on their trade-mark.

Mr. Edward H. Van Ingen has performed a public service of high value in bringing suits against Republican newspapers which published his name in connection with the familiar Cobden Club lie in the campaign of 1892. That lie has been doing dirty service in every Presidential campaign for nearly or quite a quarter of a century. Its utter lack of foundation has been demonstrated at every new appearance, but this has not prevented its reappearance in the closing days of the next canvass. Mr. Van Ingen's name was connected with it in a peculiarly atrocious manner in 1892, he being proclaimed in the Republican press of this country, on the evening before and the morning of election, as an American merchant who had brought a corruption fund of half a million dollars from the Cobden Club to be used in buying votes for Cleveland. Mr. Van Ingen brought suit against Dalziel's news agency in London, and it was compromised by the payment by Dalziel of 200 guineas and costs amounting to $4,800. He also sued the *Mail and Express* and the *Recorder* of this city, and has obtained against the former a verdict of $4,000 and costs, and one against the latter of $1,000 and costs. Thus far this single use of the lie has cost its disseminators over $10,000, and we hope it will cost them a good many more before he gets through with them, for there are several other suits to be tried, it being Mr. Van Ingen's public-spirited determination to make every newspaper publishing the lie share in the expense of the general libel.

The *Herald* is agitating an amendment to the libel law which would enable the publisher of a newspaper to plead prompt and conspicuous retraction, or mistake or misapprehension, as a bar to punitive damages. No one who has had any experience of the libel law will question the justice of this change, in so far as it relates to comments on public men or measures. No amount of care will prevent misstatements about somebody creeping into the columns of a newspaper, and, when there is no room to suspect malice, prompt retraction ought to satisfy every complainant. But the reason why the public is hostile to every attempt to mitigate the law of libel is the absolute want of editorial supervision exercised over their reporters by some newspapers. They are sent out with full liberty to lie, to invent, to misrepresent and caricature; and if the result be "spicy" and "sells the paper," they are never called to account. Fictitious interviews, for instance, are now so common that they hardly excite any attention. A reliable and sensible report of the speeches or public meetings of the opponents of a paper is hardly ever seen. Personal ridicule is one of a reporter's commonest pastimes. A young fellow fresh from college or school, and with barely enough English to be funny, will load a man of prominence and old enough to be his father with a column of abusive caricature, with perfect impunity. Of the prying into family affairs, especially when families are bowed down with sorrow or disgrace, we do not need to speak, as everybody is only too familiar with it. In fact, the way the press is surrendered by the responsible publishers to the control of irresponsible and reckless young men, is one of the great scandals of the day.

These things ought not, perhaps, to affect public opinion about the law of libel, but they do. They make people hate the newspapers; make them glad to have them sued and mulcted in damages, and oppressed and ground down. There is a proposal afloat to add to the *Herald* bill a provision that, if the same libel appears in several papers, and a plaintiff gets a verdict against one of them, he shall not be allowed to pursue the others. This might be a good provision if his only object was to get money out of them. His object generally is, however, to clear his name of some imputation. This he cannot do by suing one of several libellers, because, even if he gets a verdict, the general agreement which actually exists among newspapers not to report libel suits would prevent the public from ever hearing of it, and as a vindication the verdict would therefore be worthless to him. See how difficult it is for Mr. Van Ingen to get his case before the public. In spite of the fact that it is a partisan Republican libel he is pursuing, we believe that the *Evening Post* is the only paper in the city which has reported the case.

The appointment of Wallace Macfarlane as United States district attorney for the Southern District of New York is recognized by the business community as unimpeachable in every way. There is no lawyer at the bar who has a better equipment for the custom-house cases which constitute so large a part of the work of the district-attorney's office. As a lawyer and as a citizen Mr. Macfarlane is equally fitted to represent the general Government in its legal branch and to inspire confidence in the administration of justice in its courts. Mr. Cleveland has been slow in filling this place, but he has filled it in the right way at last.

There is said to be a shortage of something like $200,000 in the accounts of John Y. McKane, as ruler of Gravesend. It is shown by the *Times* that McKane was so generous with the public funds in rewarding his followers for their public services that he paid his favorite justice of the peace over $11,000 for his services in the single year of 1893, and that he made Kings County pay for justices of the peace and constables on duty in the town of Gravesend, with about 8,000 inhabitants, in the years 1892 and 1893, no less than $66,568, or over $33,000 a year. The income of McKane's favorite justice of the peace, Sutherland, who is under indictment for his share in McKane's criminal performances, reached nearly $21,000 in two years, and that of another exceeded $14,000 in the same period.

The *Times* has a long list of city salaries which is very instructive reading,

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but it would be made more instructive by considering more closely the kind of men who draw them. Of course, there are a great many respectable men in the city service, but as a rule a good Tammany servant of the city could not get work in a responsible position from any private employer. These men do not begin life in any regular business, or, if they do, they speedily abandon it for "politics." They generally at first get places as clerks or doorkeepers in some of the minor courts, as both Gilroy and Croker did, or as "secretaries," or errandmen, to some of the larger lights of the "organization," and then, if they are really useful for electioneering purposes, they are shifted about from one little place to another, dividing their salaries all the time with some other fellow, until, when exceptionally able, they reach a place where the stealing is good. After this the road to riches is easy. The two Martins are excellent examples of the way they rise. These two men draw $13,000 a year between them from the city treasury. They began life as car conductors on the most barbarous of our city railroads, the Third Avenue, and since then have never had any calling but "politics," and undoubtedly could not obtain over $15 to $20 each a week from private employers.

In speaking of the sufferings of the mothers in affliction in "Paddy" Divver's district, in consequence of so many Tammany boys having been sent to prison for violating the election laws, "Big Tom" Foley is credited with saying of one case:

"Poor Mrs. Buckley! It makes my heart bleed to see how that woman is suffering. Her boy, Denny Buckley, was sent to the penitentiary for one year for being one of Divver's inspectors. That woman's hair has actually turned gray from suffering. Poor woman! I would do anything to obtain the release of the boy, and *if Divver had been on hand he probably could have been saved.*"

What has Mr. Foley in mind when he says that "if Divver had been on hand," the boy "probably could have been saved"? Of the boy's guilt there is no question; Mr. Foley does not dispute that. How, then, could Divver save a guilty man from the penalty of his crime? Why should "Denny" Buckley's mother, and other mothers in like affliction, expect Divver to save their sons? Undoubtedly because he has, as a power in Tammany Hall and as a police justice, "saved" them many times heretofore from the penalties of other indiscretions. What Mr. Foley has in mind is the Tammany "pull," and he echoes the sentiment of the Second District when he blames Divver for not staying at home and using the "pull" to keep the boys out of the penitentiary.

The fuller explanation of the attitude of the secretaries of war and of the navy in regard to football at West Point and Annapolis shows how out of sympathy they are with modern educational methods. They are actually concerned at learning that football contests mean "distraction from studies which may mean failure to the cadet." With a penuriousness which is enough to bring a blush to the cheek of the live college president, they object to football "trips" on the ground that they are "expensive." Worst of all, they have had the unheard-of curiosity to ask the post-surgeon at West Point to compile a table giving a list of football casualties, with amount of time lost in consequence. From this table it appears that "the percentage of accidents per man was twenty times as frequent in football as in riding or gymnastics"; that "the number of days lost from football accidents per man is twenty-six times as much as compared with riding, and over fifty times as much as from gymnastics"; and that "there were five times as many men continuously off duty from football accidents as from riding accidents, and twenty-five times as many as from gymnastics." With a painful lack of ability to explain away these figures, which the president of any fresh-water college could dispose of by a single triumphant reference to the growth of his classes since football was added to the curriculum, the secretaries weakly conclude that "more harm than good comes from football, with its present violent tendencies," and issue orders to confine the game hereafter to "the grounds of the respective academies."

Judge Forbes of the Supreme Court, sitting at Ithaca, has made an extraordinary charge to the grand jury in the freshmen-dinner case at Cornell. He began by praising "institutions of learning" on account of the eminent men they had produced, and warned the jurors against "false notions with regard to certain habits or customs which have arisen in colleges." They must not "condemn them for their innocent amusements," nor condemn them "when an accident occurs"; nor "censure them severely and beyond all reason for faults in which they may indulge." In taking up this chlorine case, too, they must "protect the college," because "it stands as high as any in the land." They must not "make thoughtless or over-anxious attempts to crush the institution, or administer such a rebuke to it or its faculty as will endanger its future prosperity." He then went on to warn them in the same strain against finding an indictment for murder against anybody in consequence of the death of the cook. Against the astonishing ruffianism of trying to break up a dinner party by filling the room with foul and, as the result proved, with dangerous gases he does not say a word, except that it was "thoughtless" or "unintentional."

Of course it is possible that the judge knew the farmers who compose the grand jury to be so prejudiced against the college and the students that their zeal needed some check. But even so, his apologetic tone about the offence is likely to be mischievous, and he lost a great opportunity of denouncing authoritatively the extraordinary blackguardism which breaks out every now and then in many colleges, and has in this case resulted in a tragedy. The older an institution of learning is, and the higher it stands, and the more eminent men it has produced, the more incumbent is it on all who repair to it to try to be gentlemen. In fact, to teach them to be gentlemen is its first and greatest duty. There is an immense field of fun and sport open to gentlemen, but getting into the room under a dinner party and sending up fetid fumes among the guests is not in it. That is the sport of blackguards or barbarians. There is an excellent French teacher still among us who, years ago, had a school much resorted to by wild Western girls, who used to come full of courses of reading and lines of study, and were eager to consult her about them. But she always met them with, "This is all very well, ladies, but you must first civilize yourselves" (*Civilisez-vous d'abord, mesdemoiselles*). That is, she meant that they should first learn how to behave. The Cornell Faculty have need, apparently, to address the same remark to their young men.

The Queen's speech on Monday, though producing the Liberal programme of legislation, contains no mention of Irish home rule; but the omission seems to be rendered unimportant by Lord Rosebery's explicit declaration that the position of the Liberals on that question was unchanged, and that if his speech in the House of Lords last year left any doubt about his views on the subject, he desired to remove them. This declaration may be said to have been absolutely necessary to save the ministry, for they are dependent on the Irish vote for their existence. If it went against them, they would have to dissolve, and he would be a good prophet who should say what the result of a dissolution would be. Lord Rosebery promises other measures, such as Welsh and Scotch disestablishment and the abolition of plural voting, the equalization of rates in London, and, above all, some changes in the constitution of the House of Lords which will make it amenable to public opinion. With these measures pending, it may safely be said that "Old" England is on her last legs, and we may be sure that there will be some desperate fighting before she disappears.

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THE SENATE AMENDMENTS.

THE amendments to the Wilson tariff bill reported by the Senate finance committee will be disappointing to most tariff-reformers, who must, however, bear in mind that the first and most necessary thing is to prepare a bill that can be passed. The McKinley tariff organs, and especially the protectionist trade journals, such as the *American Manufacturer* of Pittsburgh, have been predicting with great confidence that the bill would not pass at all. In fact, the efforts of the protected classes generally have been directed towards the defeat of the bill and not to its amendment. Only here and there has an advocate of amendment been found among them. One such, the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*, has pointed out from the beginning that the bill was almost certain to pass, and hence that it was the part of wisdom for the manufacturers to labor for its improvement instead of incurring the ill-will of its supporters by opposing everything in it.

The bill, as reported, makes a great many small concessions to particular trades, which the masses of the people will take little interest in because they will not understand them. The principal amendments are the placing of a duty of one cent per pound on raw sugar, and an additional duty of four-tenths of a cent on refined, and the restoration of coal and iron ore to the dutiable list at 40 cents per ton each —the existing duty being 75 cents. The duty on sugar has two aspects. Until the passage of the McKinley bill it had been the largest source of revenue to the Government, some sixty millions being derived from it at two cents per pound with a corresponding duty on molasses. Now the Government is in need of revenue, and has been obliged, within thirty days, to sell bonds to pay its current expenses. That condition cannot continue. Revenue must be had from some quarter, and in large amounts too. The deficit for the present fiscal year is likely to be $75,000,000, if not more. The income tax, if it passes, at 2 per cent. upon incomes above $4,000, will not come anywhere near filling this gap. The proposed increase in the tax on distilled spirits will not more than make good the decrease in import duties. Therefore, an additional revenue of something like $30,000,000 must be found for a few years, until the swollen pension list begins to subside.

This is one view of the duty on sugar. The other is that the supporters of the Wilson bill, with their narrow majority in the Senate, cannot afford to throw away any votes. It is very probable that the Louisiana Senators made the sugar duty a condition of their support, *sine qua non*. If this is true, then the committee was justified in adopting the amendment. The bounty on sugar paid under the McKinley bill will now disappear. This amounts to over $10,000,000. Consequently the total change in the Government's balance-sheet under the sugar schedule will be $40,000,000. It should be remarked here that the balancing of the budget is really the most important concern of the whole bill. The prosperity of the country depends more upon the equilibrium of the national Treasury than upon any other single matter within the scope of the Government's powers.

The retention of the duty on iron ore seems to us to be a serious matter and a thing to be resisted by the House—not to be resisted at all hazards, but to be fought over in earnest. Leaving out of view the matter of principle involved, upon which there is much to be said from the standpoint of raw materials, the prosperity of the iron industry on the Atlantic seaboard is involved. The Bessemer ores of the island of Cuba are already owned to a large extent by Americans. Therefore any profits derived from the importation of them will inure to our own citizens. These ores are needed to mix with ores of our own production in the manufacture of steel. The great works at Sparrow Point, Maryland, which have been so long closed, would soon be reopened if these ores could be obtained free of duty. What is true of the Sparrow Point works is true in somewhat less degree of all the iron and steel industries east of the Allegheny Mountains. The duty on coal is of much less consequence, as it affects only a corner of New England, which seems to be too much wedded to McKinleyism to make any fight for its own rights in this particular.

It is gratifying to observe that free wool remains in the bill. We have always held the opinion that the doctrine of protection would receive its death-wound whenever wool should be made free. That infantile doctrine may linger for some time afterwards, but it will never recover. That this is the belief of the high-tariff people we have had frequent occasion to show by quotations from their organs. Nothing else than this conviction would ever have reconciled them to the wool tariff of 1867. Hence if any group of tariff-reformers are disposed to make wry faces over the Senate amendments, let them bear in mind that if the bill should pass to-morrow in exactly the shape that it now stands, they would have gained free wool at all events and would have planted a seed that is pretty sure to come to maturity. Let us see now what is the meaning of the threat of the wool-growers that without protection for wool there shall be no protection for anything. Let us see if they will be as active in throwing off duties hereafter as they have been in putting them on heretofore.

The tariff-reformers can take courage also from the fact that this is the first tariff bill since the war that has been passed avowedly for other purposes than protection. This is a fact of great significance. It is this example, far more than any specific reduction of duties, that makes the bill exasperating to the protected classes. Their opponents may be correspondingly cheered.

GOVERNMENT BY SEE-SAW.

THE Republican organ draws the attention of "the considerable number of respectable gentlemen who got tired of voting the Republican ticket a few years ago," to the bad uses to which the Democrats have put the power which these "respectable gentlemen" helped to bestow on them. It would be useless to defend the Democrats. The country has been wofully disappointed in them. Their government of this State, for instance, has been little better than the orgy of a lot of criminals; and though their record in other States has not been quite so bad, it has been very bad. But their achievements at Washington have not been without merit. They have, in one way or another, stopped the silver purchases, with much groaning and moaning, it is true, and with plenty of blundering, but very much in the way in which all our legislation at Washington is now done, much in the way in which, for example, we got back to specie payments in 1878. The party has, too, repealed the wholly useless and probably unconstitutional federal-election law, to which we owed Davenport in this city. It is now engaged on and will probably pass a moderate tariff, by which we mean neither a protectionist nor a free-trade tariff, but a tariff which will probably stand for some time unaltered and without exciting any furious opposition. This makes, as parties now go, by no means a bad record for the first year. How long is it since the Republican party gave us any such reasons to be thankful? All the Democratic legislation hitherto has, if we except the income tax, been moderate—that is, has not been offensive to the moderate men who turn the scale at elections.

That this will continue if it remains in power we do not assert. The income tax is a bad sign. In these times, when the questions before the country are mainly economical questions, want of moderation is the rock on which both parties split. During the days of the anti-slavery agitation, when the evil the Republicans were attacking was far away and the interest of the North in it was largely moral, almost any violence was excusable and excused. But when a party is legislating about business, men will not tolerate extreme measures which upset their calculations and compel them to change their business habits, or make serious inroads on their income. This is a lesson which both Democrats and Republicans find it hard to learn. The probabilities are that the tariff of 1883, high as it was, might have stood

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for long years, and would be standing to-day, if the Republicans could have been content to let it alone. A wall of use and wont soon grows up about any moderate tariff, on which its defenders might safely rely for its preservation for a long period. But the Republicans could not let it alone. They tinkered it every year, until they finally produced the McKinley bill, which was protection run mad, and passed it by methods such as had never been seen in a parliamentary body before. This was the excess which worked their ruin. Excess, in fact, is what drives every party out of office. It does not trouble the rank and file, but it touches the susceptibilities of the small body who, in most parts of the country, decide the elections.

If this State should be turned over again to the Republicans next fall, it will certainly not indicate any forgetfulness, on the part of those who do the turning over, of the record of the Republican party as an agent of bad government here. It is now a good while since 1885, but no intelligent political observer is oblivious of the fact that Hill was in that year started on his shameful career by the refusal of the Republicans to support their own ticket and elect Davenport. Nor has there since then been a single scheme against the peace and dignity of the State or city set on foot at Albany in which the Republicans have not had some share. The party does not keep a boss like Platt for mere ornament. He is kept for use. The present session of the Legislature is not yet over, and it may turn out better than is expected, but it looks now as if the eagerness of the disgusted and discontented for a change of parties would be considerably abated by next June.

The number of people on whom party ties sit lightly is increasing every year, and is making all elections more and more uncertain. Large numbers of Democrats voted the Republican ticket last fall who never voted it before, and large numbers of Republicans voted the Democratic ticket in 1892 who never voted it before. When a man does this even once, he never gets over it. He is never a good party man again. When economic questions are the questions of the day, this tendency is sure to increase. No man can make a religion of taxation or currency, as men did of the anti-slavery cause or the defence of the Union. The younger generation which is fast coming on the stage is amused by the fidelity to their party of the old "life-long" Democrats and Republicans. They are learning the new and rational method of getting good government by what we may call "see-saw"—that is, by turning out of office each party in turn when it begins to push its doctrines to extremes. It is astonishing, when one comes to think of it, how small a portion of the community is composed of furious fellows who insist on "the whole hog" in everything. The mass of men like middle courses and quiet methods, but it is almost impossible to get this into the heads of politicians and clarion editors. Things accordingly go pretty smoothly with every party as long as it attempts nothing heroic, and does not try to put the noses of the other fellows to the grindstone. The people, for instance, can stand a fair amount of corruption in office, but when you try to put a criminal on the bench of a court of last resort, they rise up in wrath. They can stand moderate protection, but when you begin to build a wall round the country, and tell the laborer that the more he pays for his clothes, the better off he is, you array the common sense of mankind against you, and before that everything goes down.

PROTECTION AND SOCIALISM.

THE French Chamber of Deputies has been occupied for some time with raising the duty on foreign wheat. This is partly owing to the loud outcries of the farmers, who, like the farmers of all the world, are complaining bitterly of foreign competition, and partly to the desire to maintain the valuation on which the land tax is assessed. This valuation began in 1821, and has remained pretty much the same ever since; but if the present agricultural depression continues, there will naturally be a demand for revision, which would be a task that any government might well shrink from.

The debate on the increase of duty has been remarkable as one of those discussions on general principles in which Frenchmen delight, and in which they shine. The great battle of free trade and protection has been fought over with a finish and an eloquence and a wealth of epigrams and illustrations which one hears nowadays in no parliament but that of France. But it owes its chief interest to the appearance in the arena of a socialist deputy, M. Jaurès, who far surpasses any orator of that school who has as yet undertaken to preach its gospel. He held the Chamber spell-bound for several hours by a speech of extraordinary eloquence and ability, and of absolute freedom from the violences and vulgarities of the ordinary socialist harangue. He moved as an amendment to the bill increasing the duties on grain the following bill:

> "Sole Article. The State alone has the right to import foreign grain, flour, and meal. It will resell them at a price fixed every year by law. It will sell the flour and meal at a price based on the price of grain, and fixed also by law."

He supported this amendment in an address which the *Temps* said was "worthy of the most illustrious orators of antiquity." The interest of it, however, lay largely in the fact that, while repudiating both protection and free trade as "provisional and relative phenomena, like society itself," his arguments were strictly protectionist, only he was more consistent and logical than any protectionist ventures to be. To use the slang of the game of poker, "he saw the protectionists and went them one better." If the Government is to concern itself at all with the prices of commodities, and especially with that of a commodity so important as grain and flour, the true plan, and the only sure one, is to fix the price itself directly, without the use of an instrument so clumsy and uncertain as the custom-house. In this way two great evils would be got rid of —speculation and intermediate profits. The middleman, who raises the price of everything he handles, would, so to speak, be "left out in the cold," and the speculator, who buys up the grain of the country and stores it for a rise or sells it for a fall, would find his occupation gone. The Government, being the only importer, would see that enough grain to prevent a scarcity, and yet not enough to injure the native farmer, was always imported.

The effect of this speech was very great. It exploded like a bomb among the protectionists, for the arguments of M. Jaurès were their own. He convicted them of socialism with ease and grace. To M. Méline, their great leader, he presented protectionism as a mirror, and said: "Look at yourself; don't you see you are a socialist?" This, said he, was also the opinion of the great Cavour. All protectionists are socialists in the earlier stage. They undertake, like the socialists, to fix prices and regulate industry, and decide which industry ought to thrive, and what profits it ought to have, and how much wages it ought to pay to its workmen, but they do it clumsily, and with enormous disturbance to the body social. For what can be more awkward, and even barbarous, as a fixer of prices and improver of the condition of the poor, than a custom-house, with its scales, and schedules, and percentages, and valuations, and classifications, and watchers, and weighers, and bonded warehouses, and frauds, and concealments, and smugglers? If Government be competent at all to fix prices, it ought to fix them directly, and, if necessary, it ought to produce or buy the goods needed by the people.

There is for protectionists no getting away from this position. They, more than any writers, thinkers, or preachers, have prepared the working classes of the world for socialism. They dare not present themselves to any socialist audience without exposing themselves to being bowled over by the least intelligent disciple in the room. Once admit the right or duty of a government to levy taxes for other purposes than revenue, and you clear the coast for Karl Marx and Juarès and Bebel and Bellamy and the whole crowd of social dreamers

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and firebrands. They need no books or papers which Carey and Greeley and McKinley and Reed and Lodge do not furnish them. These thinkers have really left nothing for the socialists to settle but the question of means. The socialists prefer simpler methods and a larger application of the protectionist principle. But it must be admitted that the socialists have far stronger faith in human nature than the protectionists possess. The protectionists openly acknowledge that "the State" is composed of men who like money and are capable of being corrupted in a good cause. To the socialists, on the other hand, "the State" is a collection of absolutely pure philosophers, who devote their lives to the promotion of human happiness, and know what is good for every one, and would scorn to make a cent out of State products or industry.

A PRACTICAL STUDY OF VITAL STATISTICS.

VITAL statistics are the mathematics of aggregate life. The differentials and the integrals of the calculus of being are soil, food, shelter, ventilation, occupation, race, and the various other factors wherein one community differs from another. One of the most interesting of these, because it is at once the most stable and the least understood, is that of race. In the Southern States this carries the question into the higher regions of political economy because of the numerical importance of the negro and his physiological allies. The health of the colored man affects his working power and hence his productiveness. His sickness involves an indirect money loss by enforced idleness, a direct waste by the absorption of energy and of material in caring for him, and a permanent diminution of productive power by his premature decay or death. A famous operative surgeon used to maintain that English flesh differed from French flesh. In the civil war, negro soldiers recovered from wounds more rapidly than whites, but succumbed to most diseases sooner, and the moral and physical qualities that led to those results must still, in part at least, be efficient. Sickness and death among the whites, of course, lead to similar economic waste.

A special report by the Census Office on the comparative vital statistics of Baltimore and the District of Columbia, for the six years ending with 1890, is interesting for the incidental light it throws on race influences as well as on the direct exposure to other elements of life and death. The regions chosen for this investigation resemble each other in climate, in water supply, in topographical features, and in the number and race distribution of the inhabitants, and are unlike in that one is sewered and the other is not, and partly in the occupations of the people. For this examination they were districted to correspond with peculiarities of altitude, location, and character or density of population, independently of municipal subdivisions, and they were studied as such districts and not as wards or voting-precincts. The population, both in the aggregate and in these sectional parts, was grouped into classes of age, according to the teaching of experience, which shows that death attacks the extremities of the column much more successfully than its centre. Thus, the aggregate colored death-rate was nearly twice that of the white in Baltimore, and more than one-third in excess of that in Washington.

But if one should compare the white death-rate per thousand under five years at, say, 80 with that of the colored between 15 and 45 years at 15, or the death-rate of the colored under 5 years at 160 with the mature whites at 10 per thousand, there could be no just deduction. First the relative numbers of those living at the different ages must be determined, and then the proportion of deaths within these various groups are to be considered. These comparisons show that the excess of colored mortality is due to the enormous death-rate of children. Thus, in Baltimore it was 197.62 colored to 88.22 white; and, although the aggregate was lower, the proportion was about the same in Washington. During the census year the disproportion was even greater in other Southern cities, being in Richmond 222.6 to 75.3, in Mobile 190.6 to 73.75, and in Charleston 227.8 to 92.3. But it does not seem that this is a necessary fatality, for it varies greatly in different districts of the cities under discussion, as from 466.7 in one to 143 9 in another, and again from 642.9 to 70.2, while the white mortality of similar age-groups in the same localities ranges from 162.65 to 73 and from 125 to 65.7. Neither is it necessarily a peculiarity of race, because in the census year Atlanta lost 163.5, New Orleans 118.2, Montgomery 57.5 of such colored children as against those cited from other Southern cities.

The cause of such fluctuations for both white and black must depend upon local conditions which hygienists class as preventable. As the altitude increases, the death-rate diminishes for both colors; and low-lying districts mean, generally speaking, dampness, malaria, and other consequences of defective drainage. As is reasonable where the greatest population to the acre is less than 70 in one town and 172 in the other, density has no appreciable influence. The overcrowding of great cities is quite different. Somewhat curiously, the moral character of the people may be determined in the rough by the range of mortality—another illustration of the wages of sin. But whether it is that the vicious make the districts lethal by their vice, or, being improvident and undeveloped, they drift into the worst quarters from inability to do better, or whether from choice they find congenial haunts in the ill-kept purlieus, is not explained. There is no doubt that it is only by close investigation of comparatively small areas that the real health of any community can be analyzed.

The special causes of excessive sickness and of death are always localized; and by those properly equipped not only can the lines that enclose these areas, whether houses or wards, be defined, but the efficient causes of their unhealthfulness be determined. It is here that knowledge is power. Every inhabited district has these variations, and while a city as a whole may be healthy, there will be, in all but ideal communities, regions far below the average. An intelligent investigator, supplied with knowledge of what is below the surface and what is going on within the houses, who should dissect New York, would develop many a cause not now suspected for the ill-health that mars sub-districts of the town and finds expression only in the statistics at large. An honest topographical map of what is ten feet under ground in the heart of the city would show undrained sub-basements, springs and blind water-courses beneath Belgian blocks and sandstone foundations, questionable sewers, leaking pipes, ground "made" by garbage and other filth; and then why Nature exacts a tithe even from the innocent violators of sanitary laws would be better understood. What is out of sight nourishes the deadly fruit that is plucked in public.

The value of such a report as we have just discussed, due in this instance to the acute intelligence of Dr. Billings, lies in directing the attention of those interested to the very spots where remedy and prevention must be applied. The authorities of those cities have no excuse for not lifting out of the slough at least some of their unfortunates. They are not aliens, or even neighbors, whom they may or may not be expected to succor: they are their own sons and daughters. Still more profitable would it be if the records of sickness as well as of death could be made thus plain. But sickness is so variable in quality that it is difficult to define it except in the grosser forms of severe acute disease. It is, however, worth proclaiming that consumption, whose preventable nature is now attracting so much attention, caused very nearly one-seventh of all the deaths in the two cities, and more than one-fourth of all those of persons over fifteen years of age. It is also significant that there were to the thousand fewer infants less than one year old in 1890 than in 1880. This is true of each city and of each race. Whether that was due to an increased death-rate or to a diminished birth-rate, is yet undetermined; but it is worthy of consideration. A diminished

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birth-rate is not an unmixed evil if it is accompanied by increased vitality. It is the children that survive and are vigorous, not those that are born, who give prosperity to the community.

With consumption abolished, with typhoid fever as rare as typhus, and with wise police measures to regulate vices that we may hope religion and morals will finally overcome, the physical millennium may be looked for. But that form of the kingdom of heaven will arise only as the streets of the New Jerusalem are kept clean by every one sweeping in front of his own door—by the local evils being swept away one by one.

MR. GLADSTONE'S RETIREMENT.

LONDON, March 3, 1894.

RUMORS concerning Mr. Gladstone's retirement have, during the past three weeks, pervaded the political atmosphere. They were at one period fully disposed of in the minds of most men by "authorized" communications from Biarritz. They supervened in stronger guise than ever in the evening papers of Tuesday. Next morning the *Daily News*, generally supposed to be fully in Mr. Gladstone's confidence, wrote as follows: "We have authority for stating, as we state elsewhere, that there is no truth in any of the current rumors on the subject of the prime minister's resignation." The day before yesterday, Thursday, the House of Commons met to consider further changes made by the Lords in the parish-councils bill. The chamber was crowded as in anticipation of some important pronouncement. The strangers', the peers', and the ladies' galleries (so far as could be seen through the grille) were full. In all the four years in which I have listened to Mr. Gladstone, I never heard him speak with greater clearness, force, and verve. He was on his feet for half an hour, he did not use a single note, and did not even claim the assistance of a glass of water. The protest with which he opened, against sending the parish-councils bill backwards and forwards between the two houses, was received with an outburst of cheering from Liberal and home-rule benches. As he proceeded, the growing enthusiasm was, however, checked, when it was realized that the cabinet meant to end this process for the present, not by abandoning the bill and appealing to the country, but by accepting under protest the final attenuated amendments of the Lords, and thereby saving a substantial measure from the wreck of a session of unexampled duration and unexampled labor—leaving to a near future the reversal of a state of things which, "in our judgment, cannot continue."

It would be impossible to describe the effect of this speech—felt to be nothing short of a declaration of war against the upper house. There was not, however, to the ordinary hearer, one word necessarily implying any modification of the subsisting relations between the speaker, the House, and the country. We took the words, "For me, my duty terminates with calling the attention of the House," etc., as referring to the question immediately under review. Yet what was our surprise, on trooping out to the lobby, to hear upon all sides, from the best informed, the assurance that we had heard from the great octogenarian his last utterance as prime minister. Whatever doubt there might have been upon our minds that evening, was finally set at rest yesterday by the categorical pronouncement in the *Daily News* that "There is no longer, we regret to say, any room for hope that Mr. Gladstone will be able to lead the Liberal Government and the Liberal party through the labors of the coming session." He spent last night at Windsor, the guest of the Queen, to whom he is to-day to hand in his seals of office. This verification of the correctness of the repeatedly denied rumors of the past few weeks is the greatest feather I have ever known to be set in the caps of quidnuncs and gossip-mongers in these countries. It is a discouragement to those who desire to believe in honest and well-informed journalism. Nothing has been gained by playing fast and loose with a question in which feelings and interests were so deeply involved. It does not help the cause of political morality that those of the entourage of a great man who could not keep his confidences to themselves, should endeavor to cover their weakness by denying one day that which they must have known they would be obliged to acknowledge the next. However, considerations regarding the manner in which the change has come to be admitted, are of minor importance to a consideration of the change itself.

Mr. Gladstone's retirement from the premiership will make less difference than was at one period anticipated. There seldom was a stronger cabinet—one against which the Opposition has beat itself to so little purpose. Lord Rosebery will succeed. The air will be cleared in so far as the country will realize that Mr. Gladstone's retirement in no degree implies the abandonment of home rule. The dramatic, whether in the field of great good or great misfortune, finds small place in British politics. An immediately effective crusade against the Lords, threatened as it loudly is by a powerful section of the radical party inside and outside the House, appears to me most unlikely. The people of Great Britain generally will require some stronger incentive than they have at present before they will undertake such an essential modification in one of the principal institutions of their country—institutions under which they have progressed so steadily and upon the whole so happily, and under which, by the exercise of a little patience, they have invariably secured their own way in the end. The abandonment of the employers'-liability bill for a few months, the changes made in the parish-councils bill, will prove scarcely sufficient to nerve Great Britain for such a conflict. The Lords, in their personal dealings as citizens, in the extent and degree and manner in which they play their part in the social and political life of the country, have hitherto acted with considerable wisdom and astuteness. My experiences at the Horncastle election in January, where, in the face of all the popular declarations and measures of the present Government, the Conservative candidate was returned by a considerably increased majority over the Conservative majority at the general election, profoundly impressed me regarding the hold which Conservative principles have upon the country. Disappointment in the case of other nations of brilliant anticipations regarding the blessings likely to flow from theoretic changes in forms of government have had an influence, greater than can as yet well be estimated, upon the public mind here. The large degree of honesty and purity of administration which exists here is more and more realized. Useless expenditure there may be, and is, to an enormous amount; but every penny is accounted for, all is open and above-board, down in black and white, and can be modified whenever a majority of the country so desires. There are shoals of offices practically reserved for scions of royalty and the aristocracy. The average Englishman is, however, largely content to barter the remote chance of securing one of the same for relative or friend for the certainty that at present its duties are being honestly discharged without the suspicion of monetary malversation. Absence of jealousy regarding those placed over him or whom he is bound to serve, so long as they do their duty, as to whether drawn from a peculiar class or from among those with whom he was once on terms of familiar equality, is one of his most striking, and, in many respects, most admirable characteristics.

The Lords accepted the main principles of the employers'-liability and parish-councils bills. They differed from the Commons only regarding details. They have, in truth, regarding Great Britain, let pass a measure second in importance only to the great Reform Bill; a measure not agitated for by the outside public, and which I never heard even mentioned until some two years ago. They have refused, by an overwhelming majority, even to consider the home-rule bill, for the settlement of a question which, for the last fifty years, has agitated Ireland to her very centre, which has brought untold misery to thousands, and upon which the present Government came into power. To what extent will the rejection of that bill really affect the masses of the British people? Every day but tends to justify the uneasy apprehensions of those who, in the hopeful years preceding Mr. Parnell's unfaithfulness and fall, feared that this people were espousing the cause of Ireland rather from passing sympathy and excited feeling than from the profound convictions regarding the necessity of the change which actuated Mr. Gladstone and his lieutenants. Any objections we in Ireland have to the present constitution of the House of Lords are swallowed up in a realization of how much, year by year, we lag behind Great Britain in all the essentials of advancement and broadened, self-respecting freedom. Realizing that the British people can always, in spite of the Lords, obtain any measure they desire for themselves, we are perhaps not unnaturally inclined to bulk them with the Lords as standing in the way of the realization of our wishes. Effective agitation against the Lords alone, in Ireland, is scarcely to be anticipated.

Not upon Mr. Gladstone or any British party in or out of Parliament, or upon the success or non-success of any supposed movement against the Lords, does the ultimate solution regarding the government of the country really depend, but upon the steadfastness, unity, and political wisdom of the Irish people themselves. And there is, in these respects, much that is not particularly hopeful at present. The want of training in modern political methods, resulting from the absence of responsibility in local and general affairs, is the greatest bar to effective combination and the maintenance of a wise and steady policy for the attainment of responsible government. It was much easier to keep in hand and in good discipline a militant party than one whose only possible policy since the general election has been to give a steady but unobtrusive support to Mr. Gladstone and his party.

Mr. Gladstone will be followed in his retirement by the profound respect of the vast mass of the Irish people. He is the first British statesman who has really dared anything on

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their behalf. He has correctly diagnosed the causes of Irish unrest. He is the first British statesman whose portrait is to be found in Irish cottages beside the portraits of Irish patriots and heroes. The same depth of loving admiration cannot be expected as that which is extended to those whose whole course has been one of devotion to Ireland, which would have been extended to him if years had permitted him to add accomplishment to endeavor.

D. B.

THE ITALIAN POSITION.

ROME, February 28, 1894.

THE position of Italy financially and politically is finally seen to be what, among others, I have predicted for some years it would be soon—on the verge of bankruptcy, and, with bankruptcy, revolution. The abuses of all kinds are incredible, and the utter indifference of the wealthy classes in general to the misery of the lower such that it is amazing to me that the latter should be the amiable and peaceable people they are, respectful to their social superiors (often their moral inferiors), always courteous, and, on the whole, law-abiding and submissive to the injustice of the social system to an astonishing degree. The Italians have their defects, like other nations, and some of them grate harshly on our Western prejudices; but they have some precious virtues which those who live long among them find out. What we do not all learn is, that the higher classes rarely lead in the civic virtues. The selfish greed with which the wealthy crowd the lower classes into the deeper destitution, is something appalling. The manner in which they shunt off taxation so as to throw it on those who have nobody below them to throw it on is revolting, as is the cynicism with which they tell us that Italy can bear no more taxation, when they are evading the greater part of their own obligations, and living in a luxury which is a constant demonstration of the falsity of their plea of national poverty. There is no room to wonder at the uprisings of Sicily and Carrara; rather should we wonder that there has not been a general social revolt against the inequality with which the system imposes the burthens of government.

Arrested on the long slide towards ruin more by the alarm of the social movement than the financial difficulties, the country has thrown itself into the hands of its strong man for safety, as the old Romans used to do when the danger was too great for the complicated mechanism of their state to deal with. It was curious to see how, when the danger was seen to be at the door, the universal voice called for Crispi, and how, when the immediate danger had passed, the reactionaries began to attack him again as a would-be dictator and a violator of the Constitution. With eight provinces of the kingdom in insurrection and the Government in a state of anarchy, the need of extraordinary energy and courage was recognized on every side, and those who hated Crispi most did not venture to raise a voice in opposition to the general demand for him to take the reins of government. To no man could the task of suppressing a revolt against injustice and misery on the part of his own beloved Sicilians have been harder than to Crispi, but, having taken the responsibility, he crushed the disorder as summarily as Napoleon would have done, and we have a state of order all over the kingdom such as we have not known for three years; and now the timid souls, reassured, crawl out of their hiding-places and begin to abuse Crispi for having exceeded his legal powers! That the radicals and socialists should attack him for the use of military force against a movement illegal in form though provoked by gross wrongs, was to be expected, for the rose-water people generally take things in that way; but that the frightened proprietors who, three months ago, were shouting for Crispi as the only man in Italy who had the courage and the moral authority to save the State, should now begin to conspire to throw him overboard and denounce him as a dictator, is almost comic.

I suspect that Italy will have to be saved in spite of her better classes, and that Crispi, having taken the work in hand, will not stop at the outcry of the people who object to paying taxes which their poorer compatriots hardly flinch under. He has a finance minister as courageous and as honest as himself to support him, and a ministry which, on the whole, is such as Italy has not seen since I knew her affairs; and it calls on the nation to submit to $20,000,000 more of taxation, and to consent to the abolition of all the sinecures and subventions to special interests which have eaten up the wealth of the State. The present Chamber, which was elected by Giolitti, is disposed to be refractory to the demands of the Government, and may refuse to pass the laws for the new measures. This would involve a dissolution and new elections, with the disadvantage of uncertainty as to the result and a great loss of time; and as the financial position is critical, there must be no loss of time, so that the probability is that, if the Chamber refuses to pass the laws required to regulate the situation, it will be dissolved, and they will be made by royal decree, subject to confirmation by the Parliament when reassembled. In this case the responsibility to be assumed is very great, as the taxes collected under the circumstances would have to be refunded in case of the rejection of the laws, and the ministry might be impeached, though acquittal would be almost certain. There is probably no man in Italy except Crispi who has the courage to run these risks and is capable of doing it with a clear head and steady nerve. But, knowing the man and the emergency, I am of the opinion that he will risk it and get through it successfully.

The alternative is full of danger. Few people here now question that if the Government of Giolitti had remained in power, the whole of southern Italy would now be in insurrection, and that the inertia of the more conservative elements would possibly have given way to the energy and preparation of the more radical, and the King would have been obliged finally to abdicate before the republican propaganda. Nor would the resignation of Crispi, disgusted and disappointed by the apathy and hostility of the Conservative element and the rancorous hostility of the Radicals, allied in the Chamber with the Conservatives, promise a better solution. In this case the natural successor would be Rudini, who has a party of sixty Deputies, and who would depend for his stability on the Radicals, who number forty-two. To keep a majority, he must conciliate all the driftwood of the Chamber and drop all the taxes which are obnoxious to their supporters, which would wreck the budget. Then the majority would be so insecure that, to secure a majority, Rudini would be obliged to make new elections, in which the Radicals must have their full liberty and share of the advantages. The effect of this would be the return of a hundred and fifty Deputies of that persuasion, and to make the conduct of Government impossible except in the direction of a republic. I understand that the King is aware of the gravity of this position. If the majority of Italians were in favor of a republic, there would be no difficulty; we should go quietly over to it and have an end; but this is by no means the case. Even good republicans in principle, like Crispi, for instance, see that the adoption of that form of government in the present state of preparation of the nation would be disastrous, and probably fatal to the unity of Italy. Rudini is an amiable, courteous gentleman, with many and warm friends in the aristocratic world and among the remnant of the old Right, especially the professorial classes outside of practical politics; but he has no control in government, and is weak and undecided in any emergency, without power to foresee the probable consequences of his own acts. As head of the Government he was a total failure, and in the affair of the New Orleans murders he was near getting into a war with the United States, having made the well-remembered demand for the immediate trial of the murderers, and intending to adopt imperious measures—probably to send the Italian fleet to New Orleans to enforce his demand if not at once complied with; and only withdrew the programme on the timely remonstrance of friends who knew that the Federal Government could not, if it would, comply with that demand. Beyond his very limited circle of admirers, no one in Italy believes in his capacity for government, and the confidence felt in Crispi's ability to govern, even among his enemies, would give way to a general apprehension of disaster if he were to be succeeded by Rudini. Nobody but the Radical agitators would profit by it.

Under the circumstances, the maintenance of Crispi in power is almost indispensable to the security and solvency of the State, if that can be called solvency which has already been obliged to offer the creditors a composition by reducing the interest on the debt; but in this case security and solvency go together, and the ministry will remain in office only on condition of being allowed to assure both. If this should necessitate the assumption of extraordinary powers and the government for the next six months by royal decree, I am much mistaken in the character of Crispi if he hesitates to assume what is required to carry the country through the crisis. What he means to do, no one knows but his colleagues in the ministry, if even they. The position is, in my opinion, the most serious that Italy has ever been in since it was constituted. There is an amount of social injustice and sub-official oppression, especially the latter, in the communal governments that in almost any other country would have caused widespread revolt long ago; there is a cold-blooded indifference on the part of the upper classes to the well-being of the lower which is disheartening, and with these there has been a looseness and corruptness of administration which has deprived Government of all respect from the governed. To put an end to the trifling with affairs, the imminent bankruptcy looks us suddenly in the face—suddenly, for the last ministry, like that before it and others before that, had hidden the indebtedness of the State, and nobody knew where we stood. If this ministry should remain in power five years, I have no doubt that the reforms necessary to the public health will be effected; but if the Government is to relapse into the old dilettantism and see-sawing of factions, for the advantage of the politicians, I can see nothing but anarchy and bankruptcy ahead. The disorders which have been suppressed in Sicily and Carrara are always in the background, in expectation of a

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weak government, and bankruptcy and repudiation wait close behind; there is no margin to allow of any more errors.

W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

NO QUORUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: Your article with the above caption, in your issue of March 1, is a peculiarly pertinent one just at this time. There seems to be an utter confusion in the minds of the people, largely produced by the mistaken suggestions of the press, as to what is and what is not filibustering; the same denunciations that, with some show of reason, are hurled against those who, by dilatory motions, obstruct a substantial majority of a legislative body from doing what they are ready and wish to do, being used to characterize the forcing of the friends of a measure to secure a majority of such legislative body in its favor before it is permitted to pass. The first is obstruction—qualified revolution—in exercising which one must depend upon the tolerance of the majority and the indulgence of the country. The other is the means which has always been used in all legislative bodies—and in a large proportion of our States is made universal, or common, by organic law—to secure conservatism in legislation.

There never was a time when a majority of the House of Representatives were in favor of the passage of the seigniorage bill. There never was a vote when its friends were even near a majority; and had our men of the Northeast supported those who simply insisted that its friends should demonstrate that they had a majority before they would be assisted to pass the measure, it would have been laid at rest week before last. As it was, after the opponents of the bill had succeeded in defeating a special effort to rally its forces, and after they had succeeded in so neutralizing the effect of a caucus that the friends of the bill were able to muster even less votes than before it was held, the complaisance of a half-dozen or so of those really opposed to the bill (each of whom saw a chance, as he thought, to favor Mr. Bland without really helping him) gave him an exceptional large vote on the ballot, which otherwise would have been the last that the friends of the bill could muster. Thus encouraged, and the opposition to the bill being finally worn away by the steady fire of criticism from their own friends which was poured in upon them from all directions, half of the New York members gave way, and others theretofore stanch followed them, and the bill was passed—scoring, however, upon the final vote, but 168, and showing conclusively that if the press of the Northeast had understood the situation, and had encouraged instead of discouraging those who were opposed to the bill, it would have been killed and silver agitation for this Congress effectually discouraged.

Your editorial is the first comprehensive utterance upon the subject I have seen. I only hope the outcome of the seigniorage bill in the House will justify you in so enforcing your suggestions as to attract general attention and, I believe, general support.—Sincerely,

X.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 6, 1894.

MR. HEWITT AND SOUTHERN CONGRESSMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: I am sure I am not the only one of your readers who was pained on reading your paragraph applauding Mr. Hewitt's speech at the Southern Society's banquet. It is incredible to me that any fair-minded man could think Mr. Hewitt's remarks anything but very much out of place, extremely intemperate, and grossly unjust. If the newspapers reported him correctly, he condemned the South for sending incompetent representatives to Congress, and abused the representatives for being incompetent. Now, unless the average Congressman who comes to Washington from the South is very much inferior intellectually to the average Congressman from any other part of the country—the North, the East, or the West—it is hard to see any justice in Mr. Hewitt's tirade. To the ordinary observer of political affairs the Southern Senators and Representatives seem to be quite as intelligent, quite as able, and quite as honest as the representatives of any other section of the country. Inferior men may go to Congress from the South, but are the men sent to represent the great North all so brilliant, so clear, and so reliable that we can afford to criticise? Surely the portion of the country which is furnishing the Government in its various branches at the present moment such men as Mr. Carlisle, Mr. Smith, Mr. Daniel, Judge White, Mr. Rayner, Mr. Wilson, Mr. Crisp, Mr. McMillin, Mr. McCreary, Mr. Breckinridge, and Col. Oates—to choose at random—cannot with any justice be upbraided for sending ignorant men to Washington. Even Mr. Bland, who is picked out for special abuse, is in all probability far, far superior to the average Northern Congressman from an intellectual point of view, and his most unrelenting antagonists have never questioned his integrity and his honesty of purpose. Because he is wrong on the silver question is no reason why he should be spoken of disrespectfully and put down as "ignorant." Benton was not always right, and Calhoun was terribly wrong on the greatest question a statesman was ever brought to face. Should the Southern people be abused because their Senators followed Senator Hill's lead in the opposition to Mr. Peckham, when no word is spoken against the people of New York who are responsible for the presence of that leader in the Senate chamber, nor against the refined, intelligent, and prosperous people of Massachusetts, whose gifted Senators followed the same lead?

So, in its details as well as in its general tenor, Mr. Hewitt's address was in every way unjust, and it is difficult to see how you can think that he has rendered a great public service. It is equally difficult to understand why he should be praised for his "boldness" or "courage." Surely it doesn't require a possession of these virtues to attack the South. For the last thirty years every "petty politician" has been doing it day after day; and only the other day Mr. Calvin S. Brice found "courage" to do it, and, if I remember rightly, Mr. David B. Hill had the "boldness" to be "frank" with Mr. Morgan during the debate on the repeal bill. Since the war, it has taken more courage to say a good word for the Southern people than to abuse them; and, in these days of financial and economical questions, and interests seemingly so varied, they cannot be taught political wisdom by means of speeches so intemperate as the one to which you gave your approval. That Mr. Hewitt should have said what he did, and in a manner so unbecoming, was probably no surprise to any one who has watched his public career; but that the *Nation*, usually so conservative and so just, should have given him praise in doing as he did, is both surprising and discouraging.

E. H. C.

No. 719 GIDDINGS AVENUE,
CLEVELAND, O., March 3, 1894.

CONGRESSIONAL APPLAUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: The "keen advertising instinct" of Congressman Morse of Massachusetts, to which you allude in No. 1497 of the *Nation*, has long been a distinctive trait in that gentleman's character. On at least one occasion it placed him in a peculiarly ludicrous position. This was some time before he entered on his congressional career, while he was a member of the Massachusetts Senate. A measure in which he was especially interested was on the calendar for a certain date. Mr. Morse proposed to speak on it, and had sent the text of his remarks (liberally punctuated with applause, it is fair to presume) to the evening papers. On arriving at the Senate chamber, somewhat late, he was horrified to find that, no one asking to pass it, the bill had been advanced a stage without debate. The good nature of his fellow-members saved him from a humiliating predicament. The vote was reconsidered, the bill was again placed on the calendar, and our bumptious Congressman allowed to unload himself of the speech, amid the ill-concealed amusement of his colleagues.

R. W. N.

EAST BRIDGEWATER, MASS., March 12, 1894.

WOMEN AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: It seems difficult to believe some of the statements made by "M. F. K." in your number of February 22 about "Women in German Universities." The writer was recently a student at the University of Leipzig. At that time there were but four women attending lectures at the university. Each one was admitted by special permission, having given satisfactory evidence of her ability and desire to pursue post-graduate study. There were present no "ladies" who came "without permit," "simply to learn German and see what it was like," who whispered, observed "folks and things going on in the street" (if this latter were *possible* in a Leipzig lecture-room), "and otherwise disturbed the quiet of the place"; nor were there any "unchaperoned young girls" present. We should like to inquire at what university young girls are admitted, as was implied in this article of February 22—certainly not at the University of Leipzig.

The writer observed that the attitude of the men towards the women at the lectures was respectfully courteous. Some ten years ago, we do admit that certain lectures were closed to women because of the improper conduct of two women, a Russian and an American; but, if we may believe the professor who made the statement, the earnest scholarly work and dignified bearing of the women since that time have more than made amends for the past. The writer recalls one instance where a woman, a student of philosophy, received from the students and professor a just recognition of her work—in fact, public acknowledgment. Young girls who need "chaperoning" have,

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in our opinion, no right to be classified as university students, nor can we believe that they have ever been regularly admitted to university work. *Many* women there have never been in attendance at the university, but we do believe that the *few* have been earnest, hard-working students. And we are confident that the number of these women is constantly increasing, and that the day is not far distant when we may speak of them as *many* in very truth. STUDENT.

CALIFORNIA, March 5, 1894.

Notes.

A LIFE of the late Lucy Larcom is being prepared by the Rev. Dulaney Addison of Beverly, Mass., who asks for the loan of letters in possession of her friends that may be helpful to him.

The Master and Fellows of Balliol College, as the legal representatives of the late Prof. Jowett, have requested Mr. Evelyn Abbott, M.A., LL.D., Fellow of the College, to be responsible for the preparation of the Biography of the late Master, with whom he had been in especially close intercourse for the last twenty years. Old friends and pupils of the Master who are able to communicate any letters or other matters of biographical interest, are invited to send particulars of them forthwith to Mr. Abbott, at Balliol College.

Prof. George E. Woodberry will, in connection with Mr. Stedman, superintend a definitive edition of Poe's Writings, to be issued in ten volumes by Stone & Kimball, Cambridge and Chicago. Other forthcoming works on the list of this firm are 'The Quest of Heracles,' poems by Hugh McCulloch, jr.; 'Lincoln's Grave,' a poem by Maurice Thompson; 'Sonnets and Other Poems,' by George Santayana; and 'A Lover's Diary,' by Gilbert Parker.

'The Show at Washington' is the title of a book on life at the national capital by two correspondents, L. A. Coolidge and J. B. Reynolds, announced by the Washington Publishing Co.

Macmillan & Co. have in hand "The Temple Shakspere," to be published at the rate of two volumes monthly, a play to a volume, in rubricated text (that of the Globe edition emended from the Cambridge), edited by Israel Gollancz, with notes and glossary, and adorned by Walter Crane. Each volume, of pocket size, will have a frontispiece in photogravure. For the use of teachers, an edition will be printed on writing-paper with broad margins for annotations. The price will be very low.

G. P. Putnam's Sons send us the fourth (and last but one) group of one-volume plays in their companionable little "Ariel Shakspere." We have here again seven comedies, as in the first group, and all the pleasing appointments of this edition. The same firm share with J. M. Dent & Co., London, the imprint of 'Fairy Tales from the Arabian Nights,' edited and arranged, and "designed *virginibus puerisque*," by E. Dixon, who has followed Galland's version in the main. Sinbad occupies the last quarter of this pretty volume, in which the designs by J. D. Batten are the most striking feature, and at their best are very good indeed.

Wm. R. Jenkins is about to publish 'The Foot of the Horse,' by David Roberge.

D. C. Heath & Co. have in press a 'Laboratory Course in Physiological Psychology,' by Dr. E. C. Sanford of Clark University.

Tacitus's 'Dialogus de Oratoribus' has been edited for a text-book by Prof. C. E. Bennett of Cornell, and will be issued in April by Ginn & Co.

'The Annual Literary Index for 1893' appears in good season from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*, under the editorship of W. I. Fletcher and R. R. Bowker. The list of periodicals thus indexed continues to grow, and the following additions are worth naming: *Canadian Magazine* (Toronto), *Good Government* (Washington), *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, *Illustrated Archæologist* (London), *Natural Science* (London), *Popular Astronomy* (Northfield, Minn.), and *School Review* (Hamilton, N. Y.). On the other hand, the number of books indexed in the second division falls considerably below that of last year, which, however, was not strictly confined to the publications of 1892. The full-face catch-title is a great improvement. The author-index, covering both divisions—of periodicals and of books—is very nearly as full as last year; the list of bibliographies of 1893 is notably expanded, and death claims a few more victims in the necrology of writers.

Signor Molmenti, the author of a valuable work on the domestic life, manners, and customs of the Venetians during the course of their entire history, has now put forth a biography, 'Carpaccio, son Temps et son Œuvre' (Venice), which tells us very little about Carpaccio or his work. The only new document in his monograph concerns not Carpaccio, but the father of Gentile and Giovanni Bellini, Jacopo, whom it proves to have been still active in 1466.

Dr. Max von Wolff, too, in his 'Lorenzo Valla: sein Leben und seine Werke' (Leipzig), can hardly be said to have contributed much that is new concerning his subject; but he has given in short compass some excellent criticism, and, what is even better, copious and representative translations from Valla's chief works. The full Latin text of the so-called "Donation of Constantine" is also convenient to have before one in the connection. The print is Roman and the author's style unusually clear for a German.

Part v. of Mr. Quaritch's 'Contributions towards a Dictionary of English Book-Collectors,' though it presents a somewhat spindling appearance, and really embraces upwards of half-a-dozen collectors, has a large theme in the famous Hamilton collection whose dispersal was the talk of 1883-'84, and whose MSS. were bought by the Prussian Government for $350,000. Some of these were afterwards disposed of in England, and of one, "a magnificent volume of the eighth century, written in gold uncials upon empurpled vellum, . . . formerly a gift to Henry VIII., and bearing the proofs of his ownership," Mr. Quaritch says: "It is now in a private library in Oswego, on the margin of Lake Ontario; in a comparative obscurity which does not alter the fact that Henry VIII.'s Golden Gospels is the most precious book in the whole New World." The MS. of the 'Divina Commedia' of 1460, with Botticelli's illustrations, in the same collection, and now one of the treasures of the Berlin Museum, was valued at $25,000. A Scottish binding executed for James V. is the frontispiece of the present brochure.

Those who save a warm corner in their hearts for Greece and the Greeks will welcome the new venture called *Atlantis*, a weekly paper in the Greek language, published in New York. The first number is dated March 3, and reminds one pleasantly of the Athenian press, except that the paper and typography are more luxurious than the Athenians permit themselves every day. It is intended to be independent and non-partisan, and to supply the wants of the increasing Greek population in the country, besides appealing to Americans who have a fancy for the study of modern Greek and an interest in Hellenic progress and archæology. One can see here how the McKinley Tariff and the Wilson Bill and the Metropolitan Museum of New York figure in a language not very far removed from that of Xenophon. The first issue shows a modesty and good sense which inspire confidence; and contains timely articles on such subjects as the present state of Greek finance, statistics of the currant trade, the commercial relations between Bulgaria and Hellas, notes on Dr. Dörpfeld's excavations in Athens, and finally a page of interesting and decorous "personals." The price is ten cents a number. Communications should be addressed to *Atlantis*, 2 and 4 Stone Street, New York city.

B. Westermann & Co., No. 812 Broadway, will receive subscriptions for the new weekly edition of the *Journal des Débats*, literary and political, a newspaper and a critical review, in quarto form, stitched. The price is $3 for six months, and $5.75 a year. This venture is sure to find American supporters.

Attention was called in these columns last spring to a codex published by Prof. Carl Frey under the title of 'Il Codice Magliabecchiano,' written by some Florentine who, just before Vasari, was gathering materials for a history of art. A comparison of this writer with Vasari can therefore be made to yield valuable information as to what was generally known on the subject in the second quarter of the sixteenth century. This codex, edited by Fabriczy, and furnished with more useful notes than Prof. Frey's edition had, has been republished, in the last two numbers for 1893 of the *Archivio Storico* (Florence: Vieusseux).

The opening article of the fortieth volume of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is the first part of an interesting account of southwestern Africa by Count Pfeil. He sketches briefly the history of the migrations and wars of the Hottentots and Bastards, and their success in opening up the country bordering on the Orange River. An admirable map of this region accompanies the article. There is also a short description, with plans, of the present condition of the famous Adelsberg grotto in southern Austria. Among the minor notices are an account of a terrible snow-storm and cold wave in the south of China in January, 1893, in which many lives were lost, and extracts from Emin Pasha's last diary. Announcement is made of the intention of the members of the "Freeland Union" of Vienna to send out immediately a pioneer party of twenty-five persons, under the leadership of Dr. Jul. Wilhelm, to the site of the proposed socialistic colony, "Freeland." This is on the highlands surrounding Mt. Kenia, in eastern equatorial Africa, a region said to be, in a circular issued by the Union, "remarkably well adapted for colonization by Europeans: the climate is excellent, the temperature throughout the year being very much like that of springtime in Europe, and the land is extraordinarily fertile and rich in mineral products." The colony is an attempt to solve the social problem on the lines laid down in Theodor Hertzka's book, 'Freeland: A Social Anticipation,' and in the sequel, 'A Visit to Freeland.' The purpose is the establishment of a "community on the basis of perfect economic freedom and justice—a community which shall preserve the independence of its members and shall secure to every worker the full and undi-

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minished enjoyment of that which he produces." The circular adds that "Great Britain, within whose sphere of influence the district lies, has promised her protection, as well as complete freedom in the matter of internal economic arrangements."

The famous mosque of Damascus was nearly destroyed by fire last October, but the Turkish Government, regarding it in the light of a national calamity, and fearful of the effects upon its subjects, have successfully concealed the fact till recently. From a letter in the London *Times* it appears that while the library, containing many priceless manuscripts, was saved, the greatest literary treasure of the Mohammedan world was destroyed. This was the only remaining one of the four copies of the Koran made by order of the Caliph Othman in the year A. H. 30 (A. D. 650–1). All other copies were collected and burned at that time, and these four were deposited in Medina, and the three metropolitan cities Kufa, Bussorah, and Damascus. These constituted the binding authority for the text, and the later manuscripts have been derived from them. The Damascus copy, of whose genuineness there is said to have been no doubt, was not kept with the library but in a separate place in the mosque, and was unfortunately forgotten until it was too late to rescue it. The minarets and the tomb of Saladin are uninjured, and some of the walls of the main building are standing. Among them is one which formed a part of the cathedral of St. John the Baptist which Omar found on this spot at the time of his conquest in A. D. 635, and on which is the remarkable Greek inscription still legible, "Thy kingdom, O Christ, is an everlasting kingdom, and Thy dominion is from generation to generation."

An interesting report is made by Mr. Joseph B. Tyrrell of his adventurous journey through the Barren Lands of Canada. Accompanied by his brother and six Indians, he started from Lake Athabasca in the latter part of last spring, and, going in a northeast direction, followed a river into what must have been Lake Doobaunt. "Although in midsummer, ice seven feet thick covered it, except close to shore, where in a narrow channel for 100 miles we paddled our way around, in full view of the hillsides, which were still covered with snow." Chesterfield Inlet was reached on September 1, and the shore of Hudson's Bay ten days later. The distance traversed was about 850 miles through a country, so far as records go, absolutely untrodden before by foot of man. Mr. Tyrrell describes it as "a rugged, rolling tract of land, speckled over with swamps and occasionally rocky hills. In the whole Barren Lands there is not wood enough to make a boot-peg of." Trout and whitefish abound in the lakes, but there were no birds or wild fowl, save one or two solitary white partridges. The only animals mentioned are white wolves and reindeer, which swarm as the buffalo did formerly on the Western prairies. "Once we saw a herd that fairly hid the earth for a whole three miles, and at the smallest possible calculation there could not have been less than several hundred thousand feeding there on the damp grass." After a perilous voyage along the western shore of the bay, the party arrived at Churchill Factory in October, and Selkirk eventually on December 30, having travelled 3,200 miles—the greater part, 2,200, in canoes, 650 on snow-shoes, and 350 by dog-sled. By the survey of this western shore, Mr. Tyrrell's party being the first to go by canoe along its entire length, the outline, as it at present appears on the maps, will be completely changed.

St. Deiniol's Theological and General Library is the name given by Mr. Gladstone to his new library at Hawarden. It consists of more than 24,000 volumes, many of which are marked and annotated by him, and is placed in an iron building especially erected for it. According to a circular recently issued by him, it is now ready for the use "of students, lay and clerical, of any age, of inquirers, and of clergy or others desiring times of rest." These are expected to reside in the hostel belonging to the library, which is to be self-supporting, at a low charge, for simple but comfortable board and lodging. It is the founder's wish that persons shall not visit the library out of curiosity. For the villagers' use there is an excellent general library at the Hawarden Institute. It is stated that Mr. Gladstone is about to put the library under a trust, and that eventually it is to be attached to some school or college.

At the University of Heidelberg Miss Käthe Windscheid of Leipzig, daughter of the late eminent Pandectist of that name, took her doctor's examination last month in English and Romance philology. She acquitted herself so well as to win a "summa cum laude." Her thesis was "English Pastoral Poetry from 1579 to 1625." It is reported that this lady will shortly have an imitator in the natural-science faculty of the Heidelberg Hochschule, in which, by the way, Miss Windscheid's father was formerly a teacher.

Among personally conducted tours, much novelty attaches to that proposed by Mr. A. D. F. Hamlin, instructor in Modern Architectural History and Ornament at Columbia College, who offers to lead a travelling class in architectural history for the systematic study of the Italian Renaissance during the coming summer, of which three or four months will be spent on the peninsula. The class will not exceed twelve or fifteen members, at an estimated minimum cost of $500. Mr. Hamlin should be addressed for particulars at the college.

Prof. J. H. Hyslop of Columbia is very desirous to procure a copy of the Report of the National Conference of Charities and Correction for 1876, to complete a set. He may be addressed as above by any one willing to dispose of the report.

—'The Governors of Virginia,' by Margaret Vowell Smith (Washington: W. H. Lowdermilk & Co.), is an acknowledged compilation from various sources, giving brief biographical sketches of all who at any time have held the chief authority in Virginia from Sir Walter Raleigh to Gov. Philip W. McKinney. Included with the actual governors are the presidents of the colonial councils who were governors *ad interim*, and the senior members of the Council of State who were acting governors. The work is divided at the close of the Revolutionary War in 1781, although a more natural division would have been at Lord Dunmore in 1775, the last official who wielded the royal authority in Virginia, and who fled from Williamsburg June 6, 1775. After Dunmore follows a sketch of Peyton Randolph, President of the Virginia Conventions of August, 1774, March and July, 1775. Then comes a sketch of Edmund Pendleton, President of the Conventions of December, 1775, and May, 1776. We should have had the names of the Committee of Safety, appointed by the Convention of July, 1775, and reappointed, with two changes, by that of December, 1775, which exercised the executive authority when the Convention was not in session; and it was in virtue of his position as chairman of this Committee that Edmund Pendleton held his authority. The powers of the Committee ceased when Patrick Henry was inaugurated as the first Governor under the Constitution adopted on June 29, 1776. Bancroft's account of this Convention is quoted, but the standard work is Hugh Blair Grigsby's 'Virginia Convention of 1776.' The Declaration of Rights and the first Constitution of Virginia, both prepared chiefly by George Mason, are given in full. Several documents of the olden time are inserted in the text; and where such documents are not readily accessible, as in the case of the report of the proceedings of the first General Assembly of Virginia, which met July 30, 1619, they are desirable additions; but the recent public debt act and the report of the Commissioner of Agriculture might have been dispensed with. Virginians will be glad to have for handy reference this succinct account of the lives of their several governors. Some of the sketches are very brief, occupying barely a single page. When fuller materials were at hand, as in the case of Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, and others, the sketches extend to some twenty pages. We have noticed a few misprints and oversights, which can be easily corrected.

—Proofs of the vigorous life and quick fruitage of the Japan Society of London are afforded in a stout octavo volume of over three hundred pages. This contains the transactions and proceedings of the society for the year 1892. The organizing council met December 1, 1891, and since that time the growth in members, books, and literary apparatus for the study of things Japanese has been steady. "The object of the society is the encouragement of the study of the Japanese Language, Literature, History, and Folk-Lore, of Japanese Art, Science, and Industries, of the Social Life and Economic Condition of the Japanese People, past and present, and of all Japanese matters." Besides subscribing and honorary members (among these the Emperor of Japan, who sent a gift of one hundred guineas), there are ordinary members who pay £1 1s., and corresponding members who pay 10s. 6d. per annum. Among the latter are several Americans. Besides meetings and exhibitions, there is an annual dinner. The "Hon. Secretaries of the Japan Society, 20 Hanover Square, London, W.," attend to "all communications and requests for Forms of Application for Membership, and on receipt of price mail the volume of Proceedings."

—Volume i. is handsomely printed, illustrated, and indexed. Besides all the information needed to advertise the society's purpose, organization, proceedings, etc., there are four valuable papers printed *in extenso*—"Ju-jitsu" (Self-defence by Sleight of Body), "The Uses of Bamboo in Japan," "Some Industrial Art Workers" (crape printers), and "The Naturalistic Art of Japan" are the titles, the subjects being ably treated by experts. The readers—T. Shidachi, Charles Holme, Mrs. Ernest Hart, and W. Gowland—have studied their themes on the soil of Nippon, and brought thence their abundant illustrations. Twenty-seven of these are reproduced in this volume, the specimens of crape printing being remarkably well done. Of unique value is the paper on "The Genealogy of the Miochin Family," with illustrations of the work of these skilled artificers in armor and other metal work. Typical of the Japanese social institution, usually called a "family" by unskilled translators and the ordinary writer, it is the genealogy of a house or firm, rather than a blood-line of father and son. Page

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129 shows the humors of the secretary's work. The fact is revealed that many persons would like to proceed to the Mikado's domains at the society's expense "to collect information," while more have not yet learned its real object. A supposed manuscript of the thirteenth century, said to be a treatise on Esoteric Buddhism, sent from a library abroad for examination, proved to be a printed volume of the nineteenth century. A catalogue of the growing library is also given. The book is free to members enrolled or elected before January 1, 1893. Non-members can procure it of the honorary secretaries at 17s. in cloth or 15s. in paper covers.

—The venerable University of Paris, suppressed at the time of the Revolution and restored as part of the University of France, under the title of Académie de Paris, is to be re-established ere long, if vigorous effort and earnest prayer are of any avail. All that is really wanting is the former title, and the Council is hopeful that the want will not now long be felt. The report of 1892-93 is full of interesting matter, especially concerning the enormous growth of the numbers of the students. The increase in 1892-93 was 1,166, making the total number of students in Paris 11,914. These figures are startling, and it is no wonder that the professors are alarmed at the continued growth of the metropolitan university. It has become impossible, in some departments, to find room for the men, the difficulties being greatest in laboratories and in dissecting-rooms. Similar difficulties, on a smaller scale, are being experienced in this country. It is interesting to note that the number of women students in Paris is increasing as well as that of students from foreign countries. The latter numbered last year 1,358, and the former 343, of whom 171 were French. American students contemplating a visit to Paris will be glad to know that not only is the question of equivalents in requirements being considered by the Council, but also that there is a committee specially intrusted with the duty of looking after foreign students, M. Pasteur being chairman and M. Melon secretary. The Council publishes a summary of the courses of instruction offered in the different faculties, under the title of 'Livret de l'Étudiant de Paris' (Delalaine Frères).

—The recent election of M. José Maria de Heredia to a seat in the French Academy deserves notice. M. de Heredia is a poet whose work is contained in one volume of verse, 'Les Trophées,' a series of splendid sonnets, and a longer poem, 'Les Conquistadors.' These sonnets attracted wide attention when published in book form last year, and the rapid issue of several editions proved that the taste for verse of a very high order has by no means diminished in France. M. de Heredia is a contemporary of Leconte de Lisle, and had Taine for a pupil. He is French on his mother's side, and a naturalized citizen of the country whose highest literary court has just honored itself and him. His election has also been the means of drawing attention to the unaccountable blanks in the last edition of Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire des Contemporains,' recently completed. The press generally announced that the successful candidate to the vacant chair was Severiano de Heredia, ex-minister of public works in Rouvier's cabinet. The mistake arose from the fact that Vapereau mentions this personage and utterly ignores the poet. Paul Bourget was forgotten also, but the omission is rectified in the Appendix, though there is not a word about Faguet's work during the past ten years, and René Doumic, Pellissier, Maeterlinck, Mallarmé, Moréas, Morice are all utterly ignored.

—M. Maeterlinck's style consists largely of the repetition, in a solemn manner, of the same word, phrase, or combination of mere sounds, until it hypnotizes the reader into believing that there must be something profound, and in the nature of an oracle, back of the utterance. It is amusing to find that this trick was tried by a Florentine poet in the first quarter of the sixteenth century. Giovanni Rucellai (1475–1525) is the Maeterlinck of the Renaissance, and a few lines taken from his "Oreste" will show that he deserves the name. There is no need of translating the passages given, as the sound is the only element of importance. This from Act 3: *Orestes* and *Pylades* are given a robe, and the one who puts it on is to be sacrificed:

Pilade.
Donna, porgete a me cotesta veste.
Oreste.
Donna, porgete a me cotesta veste.
Pilade
Deh lascia a me, deh lascia a me vestirla.
Oreste.
Lascial' a me, che ful'i primo a pigliarla.

A little further on:

Oreste.
Io son, io son, non tu, non tu, cagione,
Capo, fonte e principio d'ogni male.
Pilade.
Tu sei, non io, tu sei, non io, cagione,
Capo, fonte e principio d'ogni bene.

In Act 4:

Oreste.
E questo è quel che vuoi?
Pilade.
E questo è quel che voglio.

In the same act *Orestes* recognizes *Iphigenia:*

Ell' è cert' essa, certo ell 'è pur dessa.
Oh, oh, cert' ell' è essa,
Certo ch' ell' è pur dessa!

—Rucellai has an even greater likeness to M. Maeterlinck than the lines already quoted would indicate. The Belgian attempts, by using words and phrases as if they were actual musical sounds, to combine them into *Leitmotive*, introducing them as Wagner did—legitimately enough in music—not to color or vary the sense, but to determine the reader's attitude. The Italian did the same. Unfortunately quotation of stray lines cannot show how Rucellai repeats a word until it gets woven into a phrase, how this phrase darts in and out, and finally how it is gathered into an orchestral crash. In Act 5, *Thoas*, frightened by the signs and warnings of the gods, exclaims:

Andiam via tosto, andiam via tosto, andiamo,
Andiam via, fuggiam via, entriam là dentro.

In the forty lines preceding this passage "tosto" occurs again and again. Then it becomes "Andiam via tosto," and in that form is repeated a number of times until it finally bursts out into the lines just quoted. If only instead of "Entriam là dentro" the phrase had ended with *Tosto, tosto, tosto*, the effect would have been singularly like the passage in Wagner's "Rheingold" where the giants march off with *Freia*.

BISMARCK CONTRA CORONAM.—I.

Das Deutsche Reich zur Zeit Bismarcks : Politische Geschichte von 1871 bis 1890. Von Dr. Hans Blum. Leipzig and Vienna: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1893. Large 8vo, pp. xx, 708.

In the recent reconciliation between the young German Emperor and his ex-Chancellor there were provocations on both sides to be forgiven or at least ignored, and not the least of these, so far as the Emperor's feelings were concerned, must have been Dr. Blum's 'The German Empire in the Time of Bismarck.' The book is a *mémoire justificatif* of Bismarck's administration of German affairs since the establishment of the empire; in the next to the last chapter it gives very full details of the Chancellor's dismissal—details which are creditable neither to the Emperor's head nor to his heart; the last chapter of all is devoted to a hostile criticism of the management of imperial and Prussian affairs by the Emperor and Caprivi; and the entire work, as Dr. Blum informs us in his preface, is inspired and, to some extent, dictated by Bismarck himself. In 1892 and 1893 the Prince granted the author repeated interviews, and gave detailed answers to all his questions. The questions, of course, referred mainly to events which the official sources of information thus far published do not fully explain. Except in the preface, indeed, the author avoids direct reference to the authority of the Prince: he does not wish to put the latter in a position of "involuntary joint-authorship," or to attribute to him expressions whose accuracy, "in the absence of short-hand notes," cannot be guaranteed. It has been asserted, however, in German press-notices of the book, that the proof-sheets were submitted to Bismarck, and it is certain that we have here, in many important points at least, a sort of second-hand autobiography of the hero for the last nineteen years of his chancellorship. We have his version of the motives which actuated him in many of his most important decisions; we have a picture of his later career in the perspective and light in which he desires it to be viewed by posterity. We have also some facts, not previously known, of importance to the historian of the period. There are no startling revelations in the field of European politics, for Bismarck is too ingrained a diplomat, and, with all his grievances, too loyal a German, to blurt out, through either inadvertence or malice, secrets which might embarrass the conduct of the imperial diplomacy. But some new light is thrown even upon this field, and much more upon internal affairs, particularly upon party struggles and court intrigues.

Bismarck has often been accused of unnecessary and even brutal frankness, but never of untruthfulness, and there is no reason to doubt the substantial accuracy of his statements of facts nor the honesty of his self-revelations. As a picture of character, indeed, the book is the more trustworthy because it emphasizes some of the Prince's least amiable traits, notably his rancor towards his enemies. Like most men of strong character and domineering temper, Bismarck is a stanch friend and a good hater. His resentment against his enemies is appeased neither by their discomfiture nor by their death. This explains the space devoted to the Von Arnim episode and to the demonstration of Von Arnim's incapacity, untruthfulness, and dishonesty. It explains, also, the large part which subterranean intrigues and conspiracies play in the narrative of the nineteen years. But all this lends a vivid personal interest to the book. There are many pages which read more like a court memoir of the seventeenth century than like a political history of our own times. The most interesting chapters, from this point of view, relate to the Von Arnim affair, in which Bismarck so signally triumphed, and to the Windthorst episode which led to Bismarck's fall.

The conflict with Von Arnim, ambassador at Rome during the Vatican Council and at Paris from 1871 to 1874, was primarily due to a difference of opinion between the Chancellor and

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the ambassador touching the policy to be pursued towards the French parties. Von Arnim thought that Germany should throw its influence (secretly, of course) on the Orleanist side, in order to put an end to the pernicious example of republican institutions in a neighboring country. Bismarck did not see the danger which disquieted Von Arnim; he thought the example of French republicanism more likely to prove deterrent than encouraging. He was in favor of upholding Thiers and the republic, because he believed the republic to be the weakest form of government, for offensive purposes, which France could adopt. To make France monarchic would be to make it capable of European alliances. The ambassador's point of view, however, was one with which his master sympathized, and Von Arnim's "direct reports" to William I. proved for several months a serious obstacle to Bismarck's diplomacy. It was not until 1874 that Von Arnim was recalled from his post and gazetted ambassador at Constantinople. Shortly afterwards "revelations" began to appear in the Austrian papers concerning the relations between Prussia and the Catholic Church in 1869-'70. These, in spite of Von Arnim's denials, were ultimately traced to him. It was also discovered that he had abstracted a number of documents from the archives of the Paris embassy. He was arrested, tried, and sentenced to nine months' imprisonment. He fled the country and published new revelations in an anonymous pamphlet. The object of this publication, as of the previous newspaper campaign, was to demonstrate the incapacity of Bismarck and the ability of Von Arnim. He was now prosecuted for treason for revealing state secrets to the prejudice of the German empire, and was found guilty and sentenced to five years' imprisonment at hard labor. Such an offence, of course, is not extraditable, and the sentence could not be enforced. Von Arnim died in exile.

It has long been known that Von Arnim, at the beginning of his conflict with the Chancellor, had powerful friends and no small degree of court favor. It has been shown, by the published correspondence of the great war minister Von Roon, that the liberal policy pursued by Bismarck from 1867 to 1877 had estranged his Conservative friends and caused the Emperor many pangs. The elevation of the National Liberal party to the position of a Government party; a series of liberal laws which swept away the remnants of feudalism in the open country; the conflict with the Catholic Church and the adoption of compulsory civil marriage, a measure as abhorrent to orthodox Lutherans as to Catholics—these things had aroused a strong religious-conservative reaction. The military party, too, which, in the great wars of 1866 and 1870, had chafed under Bismarck's theory that the army was simply an instrument of diplomacy, and that its movements were therefore to be guided and controlled from the diplomatic point of view, became still more restive under the policy of European peace. The modesty and self-control of Moltke, the personal friendship which existed between Bismarck and Von Roon, and the common sense and tact of the Emperor were all needed to ease the strain of divergent tendencies and avoid a breach.

What Dr. Blum now adds to the facts previously brought out in the Von Arnim trials and in Von Roon's correspondence is the distinct statement that there existed, in the early seventies, a Conservative-Clerical coalition, warmly supported by the Empress Augusta, the object of which was to force Bismarck from power and put Von Arnim in his place. The conspirators counted mainly on the known sympathy of the Emperor with their political views; and, in spite of his confidence in Bismarck, they hoped to make the latter's position untenable by intensifying in every way the "friction" between the monarch and his Chancellor. It appears that the withdrawal of Bismarck from the Minister-Presidency of Prussia in favor of Von Roon was an episode in this conflict. In 1874, however, Von Roon resigned his post; Bismarck again doubled the Imperial Chancellorship with the premiership of Prussia, and Von Arnim came to grief. But the coalition was not yet defeated, and "friction" of all sorts continued, until in April, 1877, Bismarck asked the Emperor to accept his resignation. The Emperor refused. Bismarck at first persisted, but finally compromised on a temporary withdrawal from active duties. His vacation lasted ten months. In February, 1878, he resumed the active control of Prussian and German affairs, and for the next ten years we hear little of "friction" except in the Prussian and German Parliaments.

The parliamentary difficulties of the following decade were due to Bismarck's new financial policy. During his period of retirement he had become a protectionist. Poschinger's 'Bismarck als Volkswirt' has thrown much light upon this transformation; and Blum, like Poschinger, ascribes it to study and reflection. The impartial observer will be inclined to think that Bismarck's failure to secure the financial independence of the empire by taxes on brandy or tobacco, had much to do with his new convictions. This would not imply their insincerity, for all practical statesmen have doubtless something of that power of "extemporizing convictions" which Lowell noted in Gladstone. A protectionist, at all events, Bismarck became; and in 1879 he secured a majority of agricultural and manufacturing votes for a protective tariff. This triumph, however, destroyed the majority with which he had previously worked. It split the National Liberal party and drove half its members into opposition. But the tariff question also divided the Ultramontane or Centre party, and by gradual concessions in the field of ecclesiastical politics the Chancellor contrived to carry most of the governmental measures until 1887, when the conflict over the army question and an appeal to the country once more brought in a majority of Conservatives and National Liberals.

In this decade there was, apparently, but one serious difference of opinion between Bismarck and the Emperor, but the point at issue was of the first importance. It concerned the international policy of the German Empire. Russia, as everybody knows, was dissatisfied with the settlement of the Oriental question in the Congress of Berlin (1878). She ascribed her diplomatic defeat—unjustly, as Bismarck always insisted—to the half-hearted official support and secret opposition of the German diplomacy. We now learn for the first time (pages 219, 220) how serious was the tension and how great the risk of war. In the summer of 1879 a European "commission of delimitation" was at work in Novi-Bazar. The Czar demanded of the German Emperor, in direct and unofficial correspondence, that the German commissioner be instructed to act in accord with the Russian. This demand, by the advice of Bismarck, the Emperor declared himself unable to grant. Alexander replied that the assent of the Emperor to his request was necessary to the maintenance of peace between the two countries. Bismarck advised the Emperor to adhere to his refusal, and to request the Czar to carry on any further discussion through the usual official channels. The Emperor did so; but at the same time, on his own motion, he arranged a personal interview with the Czar. The results were not wholly satisfactory. Bismarck now entered into negotiations with Austria. He revealed the situation to Count Andrássy, and expressed his fear that a Franco-Russian alliance was under arrangement. Andrássy responded that the only possible counterpoise to such an alliance was a German-Austrian treaty, and that he believed his master ready to sign such a treaty. Bismarck declared himself unable to pledge the assent of his Emperor, and the latter, in fact, at first absolutely refused to consider such an alliance, and maintained his refusal for a fortnight. It required all Bismarck's exertions and a special embassy from Francis Joseph to secure William's consent. The alliance was obviously directed against Russia, and would, William believed, be a provocation to war. Bismarck's view, on the contrary, was that it would effectually deter Russia from war; and subsequent history seems to have justified this opinion.

Four days after the signing of this treaty, another agreement was executed between the two powers, in which Austria annulled the fifth article of the Peace of Prague, and thus released Germany from all obligation to cede any part of Schleswig to Denmark. This fact Dr. Blum mentions in another part of the book (page 447), and he indicates no connection between the two agreements; but there can be no doubt that this concession was one of the levers which Bismarck used to move his wavering master.

MATHEMATICAL FUNCTIONS.

Theory of Functions of a Complex Variable. By A. R. Forsyth. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

A Treatise on the Theory of Functions. By James Harkness, Associate Professor of Mathematics in Bryn Mawr College, Pa., and Frank Morley, Professor of Pure Mathematics in Haverford College, Pa. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

Traité d'analyse. Par E. Picard, Membre de l'Institut. Paris: Gauthier-Villars. Tome I. 1891. Tome II. 1893.

MANY good people fancy that the advances of mathematics, like those of jurisprudence, become manifest only when the state of things in one generation is compared with that in another; and that they are merely in the nature of extensions of old methods to new cases. In point of fact, there is probably no science in which the rate of *acceleration* of discovery, of the proportion of excess of the discoveries of one year over those of the year before, is so great as it is in mathematics, and no science but mathematics in which discovery seems to be becoming continually more and more fundamental. We are speaking of pure mathematics, not celestial mechanics.

Time was when geometry absorbed so overwhelming a proportion of the studies of mathematicians that "geometer" was understood to be synonymous with "mathematician"; and even to-day geometry is the most studied branch of mathematics. There are various reasons for this. One is that it is a comparatively easy subject. Besides that, the sensuous element of it seduces the mind, and carries it into excesses of study; and other causes there are. But next after geometry, in respect to

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the quantity of researches annually published about it, and far superior to geometry in its intellectual rank, is the subject of the theory of functions. For the last twenty years and more there has been a perfect freshet of original work in this line. Every year its tide is rising; every year increases the force and value of the new discoveries, which sweep on faster than they can be taken account of. In early days, enthusiasts would sacrifice hecatombs to celebrate the solutions of problems. Later, problems appeared less sublime; theorems were requisite to excite admiration. Now, theorems are as the sands of the sea; original methods alone can command mathematical dithyrambs.

At a not remote period in the history of mathematical thought, a Mystery (with a big M and in the darkest of black-letter) hung over the imaginary unit. It used to be written $\sqrt{-1}$; and what was the square root of a negative? But when it was found that the imaginary unit of algebra was only one of a class of units which, operating upon themselves, in a generalized sense of multiplication, produce -1, the mystery lost its capital; and after the philosophy of ordinary quantity had become better comprehended, the mysteriousness of the imaginary had vanished. The numbers, *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, etc., are sounds which we have learned to pronounce in a certain order of succession, and which we do pronounce in telling over the individuals of collections. If such a collection is finite, we reach a last individual; and the number pronounced on coming to this last one affords the means of determining whether the individuals of two collections can be made to correspond, one to one, or, if not, in what manner they fail of that. Sometimes the things counted are really in succession like the numbers. Such are trees in a row, degrees of temperature, and years. In other cases, the succession of counting is purely artificial, as in enumerating the population, or the pounds of flour in a barrel. But the counting does not, on that account, cease to be useful, because, in whatever order the individuals are counted, the final number will, in counts of any one collection, always be the same. Even the separation into discrete units (as the gallons of water in a lake) may be artificial, provided that, if it were effected in various ways, it would always lead to the same resulting number. It will be noticed that this is not a nominalistic account of numbers—it does not make them *flatus vocis*, only—but it makes their existence *in re* consist in an experiential constancy: that is, it assigns to reality three elements, (1) sensuous quality, (2) compulsiveness, (3) generality. Besides the system of whole numbers, we often make use of a scheme of quantity connected together like the points on a line. This is useful even when there is no perfect continuity in the things to which it is applied. The scheme of imaginary quantity is simply one that is connected like the points of a plane. Certain natural phenomena, especially in hydrodynamics, correspond exactly, in theory at least, with such a scheme. But since any line upon such a plane is connected like ordinary real, continuous quantity, the usefulness of imaginary quantities extends to almost all cases in which real quantity is used.

The questions to which the theory of functions, so far as yet developed, chiefly addresses itself arise out of the supposition that a correspondence between the points of two different planes of quantity has been established by an equation. It considers the nature of the resulting continuity (so far as this is not resolved in the theory of plane curves), and, more especially, the modes of representing the relation, both geometrical and analytical. The main object of the whole study is to find out how to make use of differential equations, especially such as are the immediate dicta of mechanical laws.

The disciplinary value of the theory of functions is superior to that of any other branch of mathematics. For many minds elementary geometry serves, directly or indirectly, as their model of reasoning. But elementary geometry is so artificial, and is so permeated with fallacies and caprices, that it must be and ought to be difficult to a healthy and ingenuous young mind; and much of the perverse logic that is current in the world is to be laid at its door. Algebra has done much for every educated man; it has given him an exemplar of perfectly accurate abstraction. It would put a mighty weapon in his hands if the application of it, in the elementary books, were not pretty much restricted to two problems, elimination between linear equations and the solution of the quadratic. The theory of probabilities is most instructive and useful, but that is only applied algebra. The theory of numbers is an admirable school of reasoning, as far as it goes, and it goes so far that reflection upon it will counteract much of the poison that the text-books of logic inject into the current of thought. Projective geometry imparts the most precious secrets in generalization while making no fundamental analyses. As for analytical geometry and the calculus, all *that* ought to be taught (as in Prof. Benjamin Peirce's 'Curves and Functions' it *was* taught nearly fifty years ago) as part of the general theory of functions. The theory of functions is, in the first place, intrinsically, quite easy—we mean to follow, not to invent. Of course, it is capable of being obscurely stated. Its logic is the most fundamental conceivable, and, at the same time, is the very subtlest that can anywhere be found; so that no man is too eminent never to have made a slip in it. The outlines of the theory ought to be known to every educated person.

There has hitherto been no treatise in our language on the modern development of the theory. At length the same year presents us with two. Though the first has 700 pages of royal octavo, and the other 500 of common octavo, yet the subject is so vast that a considerable part of the contents of either is excluded from the other, and much that we might desire to see is absent from both. Dr. Forsyth has been well known for some years less than half a generation as an indefatigable investigator of functions, and he has already produced two profound treatises on differential equations. The present work contains many not unimportant contributions of his own Messrs. Harkness and Morley are younger men, but, as this volume shows, thoroughly versed in their subject. Dr. Forsyth keeps as much as he can to the general theory, treating such a special subject as elliptic integrals, for instance, with the greatest brevity possible, and at the same time in such a way as to afford a bird's-eye view of it. Messrs. Harkness and Morley, on the other hand, seem to have been of the opinion that it was better to go somewhat deeply into a smaller selection of topics. Many things are crowded out to make room for long chapters on Elliptic and Abelian Functions, while, at the same time, these very subjects are not treated with all the fulness which is requisite for the practical applications of them. This, at least, is certainly true of elliptics. Practical applications of Abelian functions ought, perhaps, in the present state of things, not to be thought of. Certain preliminary branches, absolutely indispensable to the comprehension of the theory of functions, such as the logic of infinity, continuity, etc., and the doctrine of the convergency of series, are entirely omitted by Forsyth, while he inserts matter about substitutions which the reader will be glad to find thus at his hand, but which really belongs in a treatise on algebra. The other writers have followed the opposite course in these respects, though we cannot quite content ourselves with their attempted reproduction of Cantor's logical ideas. Dr. Forsyth imitates, in a general way, the French lucid style of exposition, though the French accuracy of statement and neatness of demonstration are often wanting in his book. Messrs. Harkness and Morley express themselves in the German manner, which makes the exposition as easy as possible for the writer—and never mind the reader. For an illustration of what we mean it is sufficient to open the book at random. At the top of p. 352, we read (with a slight modification of notation for our printer's sake):

"The symbol MN equals 1 or 0, according as M and N do or do not contain a common letter."

Now, it is inaccurate to speak of a *symbol* being equal to a number; and since M and N are single letters, there can be no question of their containing a common letter. But the authors mean that when they are replaced by the duadic symbols which form one of four or five different ways of expressing the same thing, *those symbols* have or have not a common letter, according as the corresponding quantities equal 1 or 0. The opposite page, 353, presents several singular instances of saying one thing while meaning another; and it is stated that a certain notation "will be" used, which notation is incontinently dropped without another word, and another one, not defined, is constantly used for many pages. So, on p. 355, a notation is defined, in no apparent connection with anything in the vicinity, and is never used for many pages, until it suddenly springs up after we have forgotten all about it. These examples are not culled.

It would be unfair to convey the idea that Forsyth is quite impeccable in his expressions. This is far from being true. Thus, at the beginning of chapter iii., in enunciating Cauchy's fundamental theorem on the expansion of a holomorphic function, the important words "unconditionally and uniformly," as describing the mode of convergence, are omitted, as they are overlooked in the proof given. The first page of chapter vii. has but sixteen lines of text, yet they contain no less than three faults of expression, if not of logic. Indeed, Forsyth is really too negligent in regard to terminology. Thus, that category of surfaces, curves, etc., which the Germans call *Geschlecht*, the French *genre*, and which we should do well to term *genus*, instead of the usual word "deficiency," Forsyth most confusingly designates as the *class*. Both books will be found serviceable to students, alike to those of higher and of lower grades. We may mention, by the way, that Forsyth is rich in illustrative examples, Harkness and Morley pretty poor. But we cannot sincerely pronounce either of them quite satisfactory, whether as a handbook or as a textbook, and both handbook and textbook are certainly needed. The latter ought to be so clear of all pedantical details as to be fit for the use of every young person who seeks a broad intellectual education.

Picard's very admirable work is not proper-

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ly a treatise on the theory of functions. Indeed, when the first volume appeared, the author's purpose was to treat this subject rather slightly, and we were informed that volume ii. would deal with Differential Equations. Instead of that, only one of the seventeen chapters relates to that subject. It is evident the theory of functions has been growing in importance in the author's mind. Hence it is, probably, that instead of embarking frankly in the vehicle of imaginaries, the author thinks it more philosophical to deal chiefly with real functions, thus making many things difficult and crabbed which would in Cauchy's hands appear delightfully facile. The work is one of truly considerable power. It cannot justly be called a classic. Members of the French Institute are apt, for an obvious reason, to be over-praised. While we admit the great value of this work, we must say that some comments upon it we have seen from men to whose opinions we should naturally be inclined to defer, appear to touch the point of extravagant laudation.

Selected Letters of Malcolm Kingsley Macmillan. Privately Printed. London. 1893.

THIS beautiful volume makes a certain appeal to the general public in the prefatory note, which says: "To his friends the volume will assuredly be welcome; and even to those who did not know him personally, it may be of interest as a record of the impressions of a mind singularly gifted and alert." There is so little doubt of this that we cannot but hope that the book will soon be placed by Macmillan & Co. on the list of their regular publications. There are no privacies which it would be presumptuous for any lover of good reading to invade; and for the untimely death of one so rarely gifted, but who had hardly begun to use his gifts in any public way, there might be some little consolation in the wide enjoyment of his letters and of the contact with a personality so frank and cordial, so genial and robust, as that which they reveal. The book as now presented assumes the reader's knowledge of Mr. Macmillan's blood and state; the stranger finds out as he goes on that he was a son of Mr. Alexander Macmillan, the present head of the great house, that he studied at Oxford, and that he was about thirty-eight years old when he was cut off by some accident on an expedition to Mount Olympus in 1889. As he appears in these letters he was about equally insatiable as a traveller and as a reader. He was away from England much of the time during the last years of his life. Once within a few months we find him in Greece, in Egypt, in Italy and Switzerland, then off to Greece again. He was planning his first visit to America in the immediate future, after the journey from which he came not back.

He wrote a book called 'Dagonet the Jester' and a few things for the London weeklies, but somehow it was difficult for him to put his gifts and culture to any practical account. It was not that the native hue of resolution was sicklied o'er in the *Hamlet* way. We get everywhere the impression of a singularly healthy mind. Two lines of study had for him a particular attraction—Richardson, in connection with the early English novel, and certain forms of mediæval superstition. He meant to write on them, but apparently he never did. Yet he was one of the busiest of men; there was so much to read, of so many kinds, in so many languages; and then the architecture to study, the music to hear, the pictures and the plays to see, the friends to meet. To these last he must have been a treasure. One can taste their hearty liking for him in his replies to their affectionate greetings, and his picture shows a free and open countenance that was like the nature of the man.

Many of his letters, if not the most of them, were written to his sister, Miss Margaret Macmillan, now Mrs. Louis Dyer; many others to Prof. Dyer. One of his best friends was Mr. Marion Crawford, and, writing to his brother, he gives an account of the novelist that exhibits him as a man of parts:

"Crawford was up a day or two lately, and I am more than ever struck with the fact that he is far more remarkable than his books. He speaks four languages so that the natives cannot detect him for a foreigner. He knows a good deal of Sanskrit, though he hardly ever refers to it. He learnt Norwegian, so as to pronounce it properly, in about three lessons from Ross. He is a good fencer, a good sailor, and can do silver repousée work. With no training, he has designed the entire reconstruction of his house at Sorrento. Both in mathematics and draughtsmanship he is more than mediocre. He seems able to do almost anything he turns his attention to. The one thing he has almost entirely neglected is modern literature; and he always says that he is not really a literary man. In this there is some truth, though he has a kind of imagination that he throws into everything."

No disposition could be further from the *nil admirari* than Mr. Macmillan's. He much preferred Landor's "delights of admiration" to being pleased with nothing. The breadth of his sympathies may have done something to abridge his positive activity: it was so hard for him to take a side, or, taking one, it was so natural to see the other. What could the Gothic or the Renaissance fanatic do with a man who wrote of Wren, Pugin, and Barry as the three English architects of genius? Fancy Pugin's immeasurable disgust at such a collocation! But if it makes the purist in these things question the writer's penetration, it has the advantage of being a personal opinion—always we feel that the man is looking through his own eyes and not trying to see things as he has been told he ought to. As with seeing, so with hearing: his admiration for Wagner is immense, but you will not convince him that Liszt is not a kind of "complicated tin kettle."

"My own style," he writes, "through want of practice in composition, is getting to be an admirable exemplification of the faults I dislike." But it is evident that much of the phrasing of his letters was wrought out with literary conscience, and that they suffer most from his inclination to the mock-heroic. Many of his judgments are very happily expressed, and from page to page one gets all the pleasure of conversing with a highly cultivated, active, earnest mind about the music, books, and art that have impressed it one way or another. The Cicero of the Capitoline Museum is described as "pompous, impressive, thoughtful, with a dignified purity of aspiration, a most weak flutter about the mouth—in a word, *ecclesiastical*." He "cannot help thinking that the highly idealized portrait of Shelley has been made purposely to wear the same expression" as the Beatrice Cenci of the Barberini Palace. As to the scepticism whether she is a Beatrice or the work of Guido, he says nothing. Fresh from the Parthenon, he goes to Venice, and writing of St. Mark's he says:

"One wonders how the Parthenon in all its glory would have compared with it. I mean, of course, simply as to decoration and color. After looking at all the architectural glory of that building for many months, and constantly craving some adequate notion of its former complete effect, it is a relief to have here those signs of a more recent life and glory far less gone towards extinction. Of course, the Greeks would not have used those red and variegated marbles so freely even if they had had them in the same abundance. But I think, in spite of all, it is the nearest surviving thing to the dead Athenian glory."

Greek things suggest Schliemann, of whom Mr. Macmillan saw a good deal. He was reputed to have a Homer printed upon India-rubber, so that he might read it while bathing in Greek waters. He thought "that Alcibiades should have been allowed to conquer Italy, and that then we should have had a Græcized Europe." There is an interesting appendix concerning Charles Kingsley, for whom Mr. Macmillan was named; a second, criticising with enthusiasm the acting of Eleonora Duse-Checchi; and a third, pathetically incomplete, which is a dialogue between Wordsworth and Blake.

Reed's Rules: A Manual of General Parliamentary Law, with notes of changes made by the House of Representatives, and suggestions for special rules. By Thomas B. Reed, ex-Speaker of the House of Representatives. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 1894. 12mo, pp. 221.

Parliamentary Tactics, for the use of the Presiding Officer and Public Speakers. Arranged by Harry W. Hoot. New York: The Scientific Publishing Co. 1893. Pp. 51.

EX-SPEAKER REED'S manual is very entertaining reading, and it will be very useful to the student who desires to understand the proceedings in the lower branch of Congress. For general use it is no improvement on our old, trustworthy Cushing. The practice at Washington does not govern parliamentary law elsewhere, especially in regard to special rules. Mr. Reed naturally speaks of his famous method of counting a quorum, and states, on p. 23, "Those who sit silent are regarded as consenting to the result. Such was the recent decision of the U. S. Supreme Court." To us this seems to be only a half-truth. That court decided at the October term, 1891, in the case of United States vs. Ballin (U. S. Reports, vol. 144, pp. 1–11), that the House had a rule that the names of members present and not voting should be added to those voting and "be counted and announced in determining the presence of a quorum to do business." Also, that this rule was "a constitutional mode of ascertaining the presence of a quorum empowered to act as the House." With all due respect to the court, no one can read that opinion without seeing that it was a foregone conclusion. By the Constitution the House could make rules, and it had made one. Confessedly the Constitution failed to provide a mode of ascertaining a quorum or of compelling members to act when present. The court clearly could not call a rule contrary to the Constitution on a point whereon that instrument was silent. It was necessary for the court, if it gave reasons at all, to fall back on general principles, and its opinion is not fortified by citing Mansfield, Dane, Dillon, or various courts. The simple question remains, Shall members sitting silent be held constructively to be acting? Until a supreme law pronounces expressly on one side or the other, each will find advocates as a matter of opinion. That such a law is needed is shown by the provision in the constitutions of many of our States, that to pass a bill there shall be required the recorded vote in the affirmative of a clear majority of the members. This provision is the simplest and clearest reply to the unnecessary argument of the court that the act of a mino-

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rity may be held to be the work of a majority.

No one knows better than Mr. Reed that he was simply the first Speaker to seize this dangerous power. For a century, in emergencies even more pressing, other majorities had refrained from using this disputed remedy. His apparent support by a coördinate branch of the Government cannot save him from his bad eminence, and that he is fully conscious of the fact appears in his references to it. It is a pity that a man of so much ability should persist in excusing his action, and in trying to make the public believe it to be an accepted part of parliamentary law, when in reality it is only the practice of one Congress, over which the court had really no jurisdiction.

As we have said, this manual is a very full account of congressional law; but the difficulties which arise in the House will not occur in general assemblies. There seems to be a mystery involved in the fact that legislatures as large as our national House can meet and transact business, while the supreme council cannot. Undoubtedly the constitutional provision for a roll-call is one great impediment; but an equally great trouble lies in the custom of interrupting the member who has the floor. It is a national disgrace, fully justifying the reproach of national churlishness, that this method of shouting out remarks should be continued for a single day. Joined to other offensive customs of the eminent body, it degrades the House below a mass-meeting in the rudest districts. Hence Mr. Reed's Manual will hardly be found useful in any meeting of self-respecting citizens.

'Parliamentary Tactics' is one of many attempts to make a suitable presiding officer out of one ignorant of parliamentary law. By an indexed margin one is supposed to be enabled to turn at once to the page and sentence which will unravel any difficulty. It is unnecessary for one who knows his Cushing, and it is no easier of comprehension than that manual. Mr. Hoot is evidently a believer in Reed's quorum rules; but he misleads the public by citing them as settled parliamentary law.

Eskimo Life. By Fridtjof Nansen. Translated by William Archer. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

Students of northern ethnology and anthropology, not less than the general reader, will welcome this latest production of the young hero of arctic exploration as a useful addition to their libraries. The author gave in an earlier publication, 'The First Crossing of Greenland,' much that bears upon the general habits and customs of the Eskimo—indeed, a substantial part of the present work is already contained in the other—but the volume before us has the advantage of completeness and compactness, and of embodying a more recent thought upon the general subject. Nansen has a deep love for the people with whom he spent many months of all but weary waiting, and he naturally colors his pictures from what might be appropriately styled the pleasurably personal side. His intercourse with the natives was pleasant throughout, repeating the experience of nearly all travellers to the same region; and words almost fail for the warm praise which he bestows upon them for their bonhomie, their uniformly good nature, probity, and kindly conduct. On the other hand, he lashes unmercifully the Government and people who have sought, under various pretexts, to protect and civilize the "children of the north"—an effort which, in the opinion of our author, has brought on only demoralization and ruin, with a threatened extermination of the race. No good is recognized as having come to the Eskimo through contact with the white man—they have only been "stung with the venom of our civilization." Yet, in spite of Nansen's forcible denunciation, and his liberal portrayal of the Greenlander of old, it is doubtful if the unprejudiced student will join in his lament that "this lovable people [is] inevitably destined either to pass utterly away or to decline into the shadow of what it once was."

While probably few people know the Eskimo better than Nansen, it cannot be said that he has devoted himself to such conscientious study in detail as some of his predecessors have undertaken—notably, in recent years, Dr. Franz Boas. Like Nordenskjöld, Nansen had but a limited acquaintance with the true Greenlanders or full-bred Eskimo, and his horizon would have been very materially extended had he visited the region of northwest Greenland, the home of the small band of so-called "Arctic Highlanders," probably less than three hundred in number, who constitute the primitive people of the land. It was among this people, very different in habits from the west coast Eskimo, that Mr. Peary spent a full twelvemonth in 1891-92, closely associated in everyday life. There, too, the lesson of cheerfulness and honesty could be learned from the natives; but with it came also a lesson of uncleanliness and primitive simplicity which it would have been difficult to match elsewhere.

Nansen throws no new light upon the question of the origin of the Eskimo: he admits a wandering from the west and the former occupancy of nearly all the boreal region included between Alaska (and possibly northeastern Asia) and Greenland; but beyond that, touching the true question of relationship, he does not feel disposed to venture. As regards the colonization of the eastern coast of Greenland, he holds firmly to the conviction, as opposed to the views of the late Dr. Rink, that the direction of transfusion was by way of Melville Bay southward, rounding the point of Cape Farewell, and then up the east coast. This view has almost everything in its favor, yet, as respects a migration around the north of Greenland—in the uncovered lands in which Mr. Peary discovered numbers of musk-oxen—it is undeniable that Eskimo remains have been found as far north as the eighty-first parallel of latitude. The people, in whatever way they may be considered, are among the most interesting, as they are the most isolated, of any on the face of the earth.

Catalogue of Greek, Etruscan, and Roman Vases in the Museum of Fine Arts. By Edward Robinson, Curator of Classical Antiquities. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

This elegant volume solves a twofold problem in a very satisfactory manner: it furnishes the visitor to the museum with a convenient and instructive guide to an important section of its contents, and at the same time gives to the classical scholar, specially occupied with the study of ancient art, an account, faithful and scholarly, of the treasures of a collection which must henceforth be ranked among the important sources of our knowledge of ancient fictile art. This has been accomplished by dividing the work into two parts. An introductory portion contains a short chronological sketch of the history of Greek vases, followed by a study of the various processes of their manufacture, with sufficient bibliographical references to the latest and best authorities upon both these subjects. This is succeeded by the catalogue proper, which gives a technical description of each of the objects as they are displayed upon the shelves; six hundred and twenty-three in number, exclusive of numerous valuable fragments. These careful descriptions are made more intelligible to the reader by an outline figure of each vase in miniature. From these we can judge of the capital importance of the collection, as the surprising result appears that there are three hundred and eighty different shapes to be found in it, comprising probably nearly all the known forms.

Such examination of the work as we have made shows care and accuracy in the descriptions; but we have noticed a few slips, that can be readily corrected: on p. 155, l. 33, *left* instead of *right;* on p. 159, l. 2, *left* for *right*, and l. 8, *right* for *left*. In the Introduction, p. 37, the statement occurs that the Greek potters probably made use of "the kick-wheel." This is founded upon the discovery near Arezzo, towards the end of the last century, among the remains of an ancient pottery, of a disk of a peculiar character, for which the authority cited is "Fabroni, 'Storia degli antichi vasi fittili aretini' (tav. iii. 9, 10; v. 7, 8, 9: p. 64)." The reference to the figures in the plates, however, should be omitted, as they relate to entirely different objects.

A brief account of some of the more striking examples to be found in the collection will serve to show what an important contribution to knowledge has been made by this handsomely illustrated volume. As a chronological arrangement has been adopted, *Case I., Early Greek Style*, is given up to a few specimens of the so-called "Mycenæ style," found in Cyprus and purchased of Gen. di Cesnola. For its date, which is described as "the second or later group of prehistoric types," Mr. Robinson makes quite a liberal allowance of time, adopting implicitly Mr. Flinders Petrie's estimate of from 1400 to 1100 B.C. The earlier prehistoric groups, the one discovered by Schliemann at Hissarlik, which Mr. Robinson would put as far back as 2000 B.C., and the one found under the lava beds of the island of Santorin, which he fixes at about 1800-2000 B.C., are not represented in the Boston Museum; but there are about eighty objects of various primitive types, in addition to those from Cyprus, from different places in Greece and Italy, which together supply excellent material for the student of prehistoric fictile art.

The next, *Case I. a*, indeed, is of exceptional value, as it is devoted to the contents of one of the prehistoric graves discovered, in 1817, on the slopes of the Alban Hills, in a stratum of volcanic ashes buried under a yard-thick layer of peperino (not, as Mr. Robinson says, "under three eruptions of lava"). This so-called "Latial pottery" and its "hut urns" was the subject of a communication to the *Nation* of January 24, 1889. In the same case can be seen the contents of another prehistoric grave, discovered in Rome, in 1888, inside the line of the Servian Wall. *Case II.* contains over two hundred vases from Cyprus, of various types and ages, also purchased from Gen. di Cesnola. *Case III.* is of unusual importance, as in it is to be found the Dixwell collection of "Bucchero ware," purchased in Florence in 1875, and formerly a portion of a public collection in Chiusi. Mr. Robinson speaks of Fr. Lenormant's description of this ware in the *Gazette Archéologique*, 1879, as the most complete. Two articles by him, "Les Poteries étrusques de terre-noire,"

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published in *L'Art*, July 16 and 23, 1882, would more properly be so denominated. Outside of Florence no museum affords a better opportunity than this for studying this national pottery of Etruria. One of the vases, in the form of a bird, bears an inscription that has been published by Gamurrini in his 'Appendix to Fabretti's Corpus Inscriptionum Italicarum'; he pronounces it to be "one of the earliest monuments of Etruscan art and writing." The Boston collection has also been enriched by an important selection from Mr. Petrie's finds at Naucratis, presented by the Egypt Exploration Fund. Included are three of the most interesting examples of the vases there discovered. All of them have been figured in the official account of the exploration, where it is erroneously stated that one is to be found in the museum at Boulak, near Cairo. In regard to the position to be assigned to the Naucratis pottery in the development of Greek fictile art Mr. Robinson expresses a decided opinion that there is no discoverable evidence that it had any influence whatever, but rather that it was itself influenced by other wares. This conclusion is well reasoned, but it would take too much space to quote it in full. In still another case there is displayed a goodly amount (mostly, it must be said, of fragments) of the beautiful embossed, coral-hued table-ware of the Romans. This was principally fabricated at Arezzo, where many of the moulds actually used in stamping it have been discovered. This was formerly called "Samian ware," but erroneously, as it is not met with in Greece, and moreover it is the direct descendant of the embossed black ware of Etruria; inferior local *imitations of it*, however, are found in France, in Spain, and, some contend, even in England.

The chief treasures, however, of the collection are a number of remarkable specimens of those beautiful Greek vases, both black-figured and red-figured, which we should scarcely hope to find outside of the great European museums. The frontispiece reproduces one of the most important, a *hydria*, on which is represented "Orpheus put to death by the women of Thrace," certainly to be ranked among the most beautiful examples in existence of red-figured vases in the "fine style." There are also four of those highly prized vases which bear the signatures of the artists by whom they were painted. Three are black-figured *kylices*, with the names of Tleson, Xenocles, and Hermogenes; the fourth is a graceful red-figured *kylix*, in the "severe style," signed Euphronius, and is one of the ten extant vases of this master. It was once the property of Mrs. Hamilton Gray, who says in her 'Sepulchres of Ancient Etruria' that she had seen "none superior to it either in size, form, subject, elegance of design, or beauty of workmanship." A very singular specimen, given in a plate, is a black-figured *skyphos*, representing probably a chorus scene from some Old Attic comedy: six armed warriors riding upon leaping dolphins, and six others riding upon ostriches, each company advancing towards a man who plays upon a double flute. Two black-figured *lekythi* have for their subject Herakles and the Centaur Pholos; in one the centaur is portrayed in the archaic style, with the whole figure of a man joined to the body and the hind legs of a horse; in the other in the later fashion, with a human head and trunk joined to a horse's body. In conclusion we would call attention to four white Attic funeral *lekythi*, two of them containing the singular-looking little figure called the *eidolon*, which is supposed to personify the soul of the deceased. These have been published by Prof. J. H. Wright in the *American Journal of Archæology*. A third example is of peculiar archæological interest from its bearing an inscription evidently referring to the deceased, inasmuch as Pottier, the author of an excellent monograph upon this kind of vases, denies that any such inscription can be found upon them.

The Indian and the Pioneer: An Historical Study. By Rose N. Yawger. Two vols. in one, pp. 189 and 143. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1893.

THIS book ought to ask pardon for being born, and its petition ought to be denied. It begins with five corrections of errata, as if to gain credit for painstaking accuracy. Two of the so-called errata do not exist at all, but others much worse swarm by scores. For one instance, Washington, writing of "the mischiefs which would attend a defeat" of Sullivan, is made to say: "We should perhaps lose an enemy, and our frontiers would be deluged in blood" (p. 119). This sentence is nonsense unless we know where to find Washington's letter (Sparks, vi., p. 284). We there discover that the word he wrote was "army," meaning his own, which the printer, or perhaps the copyist, has twisted into enemy.

In her first volume, Miss Yawger has tied up in a nosegay some dozen of her compositions written in school-girl days, or as contributions to local newspapers. These productions, stamped with her individuality and garnished with apt quotations, as well as sprightly and graceful verses of her own, were creditable and useful. They gave her the name of wielding a facile pen as well as popularized much of neighborhood history and legend. But such cut flowers soon dry and wither unless brought into vital connection with the roots from which they grew. The inaccuracies inevitable in juvenile essays should have been tested by original and recognized authorities. Thus, we should not read, as we do (p. 121), that Skoi-Yase, the Indian name of Waterloo, means Rapid Water, when Lewis H. Morgan has said that it means Place of Whortleberries ('League of the Iroquois,' p. 470).

But the "true inwardness" of Miss Yawger's work is not discoverable till her readers are well along in the second volume. Then the truth dawns upon them: they have pilgrimed through many pages of prose and poetry, and their terminal shrine is the academies, chiefly feminine or female, of Cayuga County. Some parents profess peace principles, and for these the orthodox Friends' Academy is described. For those not Quakers, Cayuga Lake Military Academy is exhibited, not only in prose and rhyme, but by six plates of the pomp, pride, and circumstance of war. Some like an institution open to all comers, and for them Union Springs High School opens its doors with Miss Yawger herself an assistant. On the other hand, as "we may believe large numbers to be incompatible with the best educational results," Wells College "limits its numbers to not more than one hundred, beside resident teachers." Its faculty seems, however, quite unlimited, their present number being sixteen, who stand forth with full names and additions. Whatever the heads of these and some other establishments have printed in circulars as their chief attractions and cardinal claims to patronage, is the nucleus of Miss Yawger's second volume. Whoever buys it is likely to call it, in printer's slang, a bundle of "blind ads." He pays money for what its educational creators would thank him for receiving without money and without price. He feels himself a victim of sharp practice, as Pharaoh's daughter must have felt when she learned that she had paid Moses's mother for nursing her own child.

Napoléon et les Femmes: L'Amour. Par Frédéric Masson. Neuvième édition. Pp. xxxi, 334. Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: Christern. 1894.

IT is difficult to find a satisfactory reason for the existence of this book. In general, that which is of value in it is not new, and that which is new is of small value. Its purpose is to present a somewhat chronological record of the women of all sorts and conditions who attracted either the temporary or the permanent attentions of Napoleon. This diary of concupiscence begins in the streets of Paris in 1787, with a story from Napoleon's own mouth and pen, and ends with the obscure rumors of St. Helena. All the allusions which, more or less veiled, flit through the pages of the memoir-writers from Mme. Junot to Mme. de Rémusat reappear here, framed in statistics.

M. Masson shows, indeed, an industry worthy of a better object. He has found the exact dates of Napoleon's liaisons with actresses and ladies-in-waiting. He knows when Lady This and Lady That were installed in lodgings at the expense of the State, and he tells just what sums of money were granted to them. Nay, more; he tracks the lady on through the rest of her generally unimportant life, and, with the zest of the true annalist, reveals the names of the towns and the street numbers of the houses in which she lived down to the day of her unimportant death. M. Masson does not take this trouble because he is unable to escape from the fascination of his facts, for they are not alluring; he does it because he soberly believes that any kind of association with Napoleon casts a halo of beautiful immortality over the Emperor's partner, be it in wisdom or be it in folly. Even the husbands whose families Napoleon invaded seem to M. Masson on that account to deserve the statues that are "ære perennius," and the reader is presented with the biography and pedigree of the complaisant or indignant spouse. The longest chapter in the book, the best written and the most interesting, is the one which tells over again the miserable story of Mme. Walewska. M. Masson, however, betrays no sense of the meanness of Napoleon's conduct to the Polish woman; it is M. Masson's theory that the heroic man is not under the common obligation to behave himself. The author thinks that Napoleon's attitude towards these summer butterflies who caught his fancy was the attitude of a *lover*, and he commends Napoleon highly because the latter preserved towards Marie-Louise, on the contrary, the attitude of a *spouse*—a sufficiently Gallic distinction.

The conclusion of all this strange mixture of pornography, exclamatory rhetoric, and political psychology is that Napoleon had "as great a power of loving as of thought and action," that he is "l'exemplaire le plus surprenant du génie masculin," and that "in his relations with women, as in all other relations, he remains superior to other beings." To apply the word "love" to Napoleon's selfish conduct towards women would seem an unnecessary liberty with language, but Bonapartist partisanship has always shown a large trace of the mediæval loyalty. This book is the work of a devoted partisan, and yet it more than confirms the dark picture of Napoleon drawn by

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Mme. de Rémusat. To M. Masson's eyes, however, the shades are brightness.

Notes on the Surnames of Francus, Franceis, French, etc., in Scotland. With an Account of the Frenches of Thorndykes. By A. D. Weld French. Boston: Privately printed.

It is unfortunate that the author of this book has failed to explain its intent. The surname is by no means uncommon, especially in Ireland, and on the surface it appears to mean that the first bearer of the name was a Frenchman. We do not, perhaps, understand the value of the few scattered notes in this essay, citing instances of the use of the name in various forms. There is no extended pedigree given, and no connection shown between many of the persons cited, in the first part. The second part traces a Scotch family, the Frenches of Thorndykes, from 1375 to 1617; but we are not informed whether the information is derived from printed or manuscript sources. The author presents his account with as much seriousness as though he were tracing the family of Douglas, or Seton, or Dunbar, and yet the reader at the end is tempted to inquire the cause of such industry in searching the pedigree of an obscure family which ran out nearly three centuries ago. An American genealogy interests many people, and it may often be of value in the study of vital statistics. The history of a foreign family, even if not of historic renown, is often interesting if enriched with documents showing the details of life in former generations. But a mere pedigree of names and dates is of service to few, and must claim a value only proportionate to its originality. We infer that Mr. French has the merit of first printing these copies of charters and other documents; but to obtain any recognition he should have stated the fact more plainly. If Mr. French will prepare genealogies of the Frenches in America, or trace the families of Weld, Davis, Williams, or others of his ancestors in this country, he will be doing a good work and will not fail of due recognition.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ariel Shakspere. Fourth Group. Putnams. $5.25.
Chambers, Julius. On a Margin. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Evans, Mrs. Elizabeth E. The Story of Louis XVII. of France. London: Sonnenschein.
Foster, R. F. Duplicate Whist. Brentano's. $1.25.
Gamble, Eliza B. The Evolution of Woman: An Inquiry into the Dogma of her Inferiority to Man. Putnams.
Harraden, Beatrice. Ships that Pass in the Night. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
In Memoriam John Larkin Lincoln. 1817—1891. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Keith, Leslie. 'Lisbeth. Cassell. $1.
Manual of Statistics for 1893. Nicoll & Roy. $3.
Matthews, Brander. A Family Tree, and Other Stories. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Norris, W. E. The Countess Radna. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Orcutt, Harriet E. A Modern Love Story. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. Vol. I. A—E. Macmillan. $6.50.
Scott, Sir W. St. Ronan's Well. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Shields, Prof. C. W. The Historic Episcopate. Scribners. 60 cents.
The Story of Margrédel: Being a Fireside History of a Fifeshire Family. Putnams. $1.
Tolstoi, Count Leo. "The Kingdom of God is Within You." Cassell. $1.50.
Upham, F. W. Saint Matthew's Witness. Hunt & Eaton.
Wallace, Prof. William. The Logic of Hegel. Prolegomena. Translation. 2 vols. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Zola, Emile. The Experimental Novel, and Other Essays. Cassell. $2.

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